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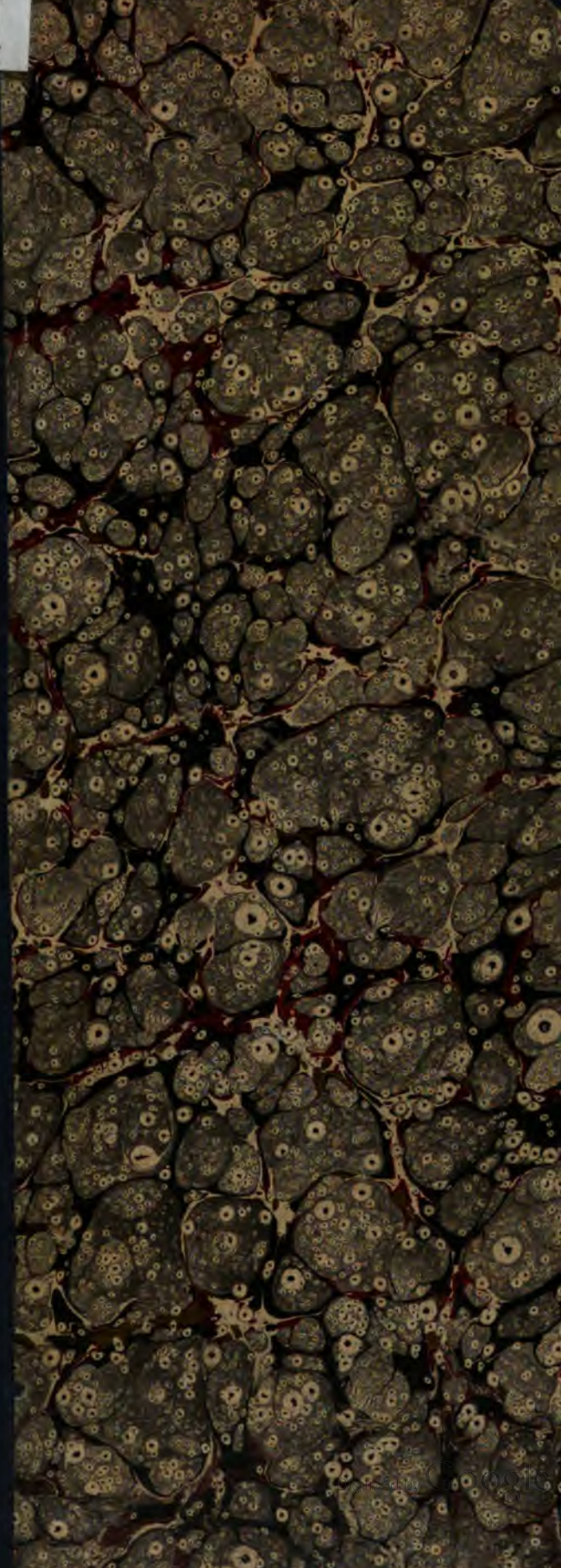
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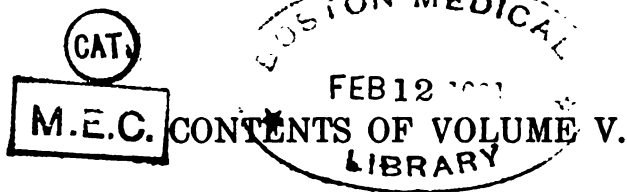
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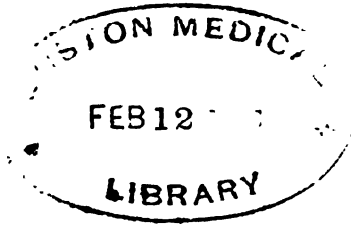
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WHEN IS A MORON NOT A MORON?

CARROLL THOMPSON JONES, PH. D.

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Columbus, Ohio.*

The term "moron" as a name for the highest grade of feeble-mindedness is so well known that it was recently stated on the editorial page of a local newspaper that the well informed person must use the word occasionally to show that he is keeping up with the times. For years men who have been dealing with social problems have realized that it is the moron who makes necessary a large part of their work. Just what a moron is and what should be done with him has not been until recently a difficult question to answer. Any student of social psychology will tell you very glibly that a moron is a high-grade feeble-minded person with a mental age of eight to eleven years and that he should be segregated for life in an institution. This sounds simple indeed and if it were entirely true the problem would not be as complicated as it really is. }

The psychologists in the army, however, have upset us completely in our thinking and we no longer feel at all confident of the soundness of our theories as to what a moron is nor as to how organized society is to treat him. Let us see just what these army psychologists have discovered to upset our pre-conceived notions regarding the moron so that we in great confusion ask, "When is a moron not a moron?" or "When is a moron not feeble-minded?" In the first place they have determined for the first time in the history of mental testing intelligence levels of thousands of adults representing probably a fair sample of the general population of the country. The results of their tests give startling facts regarding the distribution of general intelligence. The curve of distribution in Fig. 1 shows roughly the distribution of the ratings of men in the United States Army by letter grade from A to E-, with C taken as the average. This is interesting as showing that the distribution of general intelligence follows the normal curve of distribution with a slight skewing at the lower end of the curve. This skewing is probably due to the fact that a great many individuals have a lower grade of general intelligence than they would have possessed from purely hereditary causes.

Such a distribution, however, is not startling and throws no particular light on the problem of the moron. The reason for this is based on our ignorance of the meaning in popular terms of these letter grades. The use of the letter grades for rating general intelligence is new to us and consequently we do not have a proper apperceptive basis for interpreting them so that the full significance of any statement based on the use of such grades is bound to escape us unless we attempt to interpret these ratings in terms of some well known and commonly accepted standard for estimating general intelligence. The most commonly accepted standard is that of mental age as gained by the use of one of the several revisions and adaptations of the Binet-Simon scale or by the use of some other test of general intelligence which has been standardized for various mental ages.

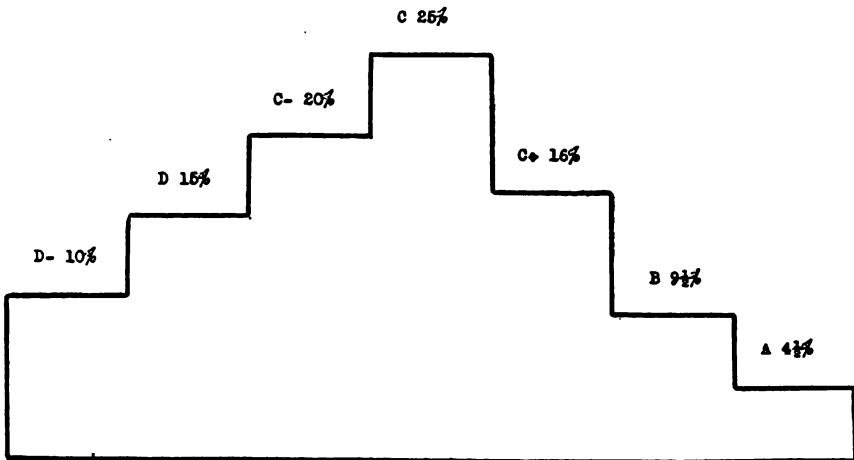


Fig. 1. Approximate distribution of intelligence ratings of men examined in U. S. Army.

A well known psychologist in a public lecture a short time ago referred to the Binet tests as the Ivory Soap of psychology, meaning that these tests are now so well known among psychologists that they might easily be compared to Ivory Soap as a household article. This statement is significant as it shows us that if we wish to be understood by a maximum number of people we must refer to grades of intelligence in terms of mental age. The Division of Psychology of the Surgeon-General's Office in Washington has published very little exact information which helps us in interpreting these letter

grades in terms of mental age. As near as can be estimated, however, from what has been published, the rating of D- is equivalent to a mental age of nine and one-half years or below; the rating of D is equivalent to a mental age rating of from nine and one-half years to eleven years; the rating of C- is equivalent to a mental age rating of from eleven to thirteen years; and the rating of C, which is considered the average, is equivalent to a mental age rating of from thirteen to fifteen years. Let us try to get the significance of this for gauging the intelligence level of the population at large. C, which is considered the average rating, is equivalent to a mental age rating of from thirteen to fifteen years which would mean on the face of it that the general intelligence level of the general population is about fourteen years. Since there is a much larger proportion of men in the groups below the average than there is in the groups above the average group it would seem that the average intelligence rating must be even less than fourteen, probably between thirteen and fourteen. While our interpretation of these letter grades is only approximate, yet the facts presented by the Division of Psychology are so striking that we are borne towards the inevitable conclusion that the general intelligence of the population at large is much lower than anyone, even the most pessimistic of psychologists, had been led to believe previous to the discovery made by psychologists in the army. Just what the significance of these facts is to psychologists, to educators and to social workers does not concern us particularly in a discussion of the moron as considered in pre-wartimes. We are mainly interested to know something of the group of men who according to our pre-wartime classification would fall into the group known as morons, namely those with a mental age rating of from eight to eleven years. Since the grade C- is roughly equivalent to a mental age rating of from eleven to twelve years it is evident that a part of these men rated as C-, perhaps from one-third to one-half of them would fall into our group of pre-wartime morons. The letter grade C is roughly equivalent to a mental age rating of from nine and one-half to eleven years and consequently all of the men given the rating of D would also fall within our classification of pre-wartime morons. The grade of D- is equivalent to a mental age rating of nine and one-half years or below and of course all men given this rating would be classified as either morons or imbeciles.

This means then, that the 10 per cent who were given the rating of D- on the army test, that the 15 per cent who were given a rating

of D on the army tests and a part of the 20 per cent (possibly one-third or one-half) who were given a rating of C- on the army tests, would be classified purely on the basis of mental age according to our pre-war standards, as morons. In other words, we should have from 25 per cent as the lowest estimate to 35 per cent as the highest estimated percentage of the general population classified as morons if we admit that our pre-wartime standards of classification on the basis of mental age are correct. This is, of course, absurd in view of our well known definition of feeble-mindedness which states that a person to be feeble-minded must be suffering from an arrest of cerebral development so great as to make him incapable of maintaining himself in society independently of external support or to use another common term, to be incapable of managing his affairs with ordinary prudence. It is evident at once that a great many of this 30 per cent of men in the army were capable of managing their affairs with ordinary prudence and that they were maintaining themselves independently of external support before Uncle Sam took them into the army. In other words, a large percentage of them were meeting the social criterion for normality and consequently could not, by the most elastic use of the term, be considered as feeble-minded.

It is very plain to even the casual observer that a new concept of the moron must be formed to fit the facts set forth by our army psychologists. Certain other facts noted by psychologists in the army and by other experienced examiners are to be taken into account in revising our concept of the highest grade of feeble-mindedness, that is, morosity. Any experienced psychological examiner will admit readily that there are a great many individuals with a mental age rating of eleven years who are much more socially incompetent than many other individuals with a mental age rating as low as nine years. In fact it will be quite as readily admitted that there are many individuals who test as high as eleven and possibly twelve years who cannot meet the social criterion of normality and who must accordingly be classified as mentally defective, while there are also, on the other hand, large numbers of men who have mental age ratings as low as nine years and yet who are earning a good living, who are not dependent upon charitable organizations for help in any way and who are bringing up a family of children. This leads to the inevitable conclusion that mental age rating taken alone is not sufficient for making a diagnosis of feeble-mindedness or normality in persons who

test between eight and eleven years mentally. There must be something, vague as it seems to be at present, which is the determiner for normality or feeble-mindedness which cannot be expressed in terms of intelligence level. To what extent this vague something depends upon the temperamental characteristics of the individual, to what extent it depends upon the early training of the individual, to what extent it depends upon the social heredity of the individual, we are not prepared to determine without a much more extended study of the whole problem.

The fact that the diagnosis of mental defect depends upon factors other than those of mental age, forces us to emphasize very much more strongly the social criterion as a part of our definition of feeble-mindedness. Our definition as stated by Tredgold still holds good and it does enable us to take account of the facts which have been brought to our attention by the results of mental testing in the army camps. If we realize that before we can classify a person as feeble-minded he must be suffering from an arrest of cerebral development which is roughly measured by a mental age rating of from eight to eleven years to such an extent that he cannot maintain himself independently of external support or cannot manage his affairs with ordinary prudence then we must realize that our examination should determine in some way whether or not he can meet this social criterion.

The Bureau of Juvenile Research in all of its clinical work is attempting to recognize this fact and to adapt its methods of diagnosis and its treatment of all persons who have a mental age of between eight and twelve years to take account of this new concept of the moron. A plan of differential diagnosis for all cases who have a mental age rating on the Binet Scale of between eight and fourteen or fifteen years has been worked out with appropriate recommendations for training for each form of diagnosis that is made. The various diagnostic terms that are being used with the recommendations for treatment for each are outlined below.

1. *Deferred.* Within this group we include every case about which there is any serious doubt. All cases where the symptoms are not pronounced enough to warrant a diagnosis are placed in this group. For purposes of disposition, however, we make what we call a "guarded" diagnosis. To all intents and purposes no final diagnosis has been made and yet some recommendation for the treatment and disposition of the case must be made. As a basis for making

this recommendation, the clinical examiner decides as accurately as the facts brought out throughout the whole examination will permit as to what the probability is. He then bases his recommendation for treatment and disposition on this "guarded" diagnosis. In all such cases an arrangement for a second examination within six months or a year is made. If on re-examination facts are brought out which make it seem wise to change the diagnosis this is done and the recommendations for treatment are changed accordingly. When the skill and knowledge of clinical examiners is made perfect then this group of deferred cases will disappear as the examiner will then be able to determine from the findings of the examination what the final diagnosis should be. More refined examinational methods and more complete analyses of a child's mental and physical condition will result in reducing this group of deferred cases. At present it contains cases which rightfully belong in all of the other groups but our knowledge, we must admit, is not sufficient at present to enable us to properly classify these cases.

2. *Feeble-minded.* The cases which we diagnose as definitely feeble-minded are those persons who have had an opportunity to adjust themselves socially and have repeatedly failed. They have been given a mental examination and are found to be of low intelligence; furthermore, they have been given several chances to make good in society and have shown this to be impossible. Feeble-mindedness is the only logical diagnosis and in such cases institutional care is the only logical recommendation. This group is composed largely of older boys and girls who have been in court several times.

3. *Potential feeble-minded.* Certain children who are not yet old enough to have been given a chance to earn their own living can be diagnosed at an early age on account of a few definite symptoms which the experienced examiner has learned to recognize. In cases where it is safe to predict that the individuals will never be able to get along without serious trouble the examiner makes a diagnosis of potential feeble-minded. The recommendation in these cases is to always place the child under as good conditions as possible and return for a re-examination at yearly or half-yearly periods, until such time as he shows that he is either normal or definitely feeble-minded.

4. *Insane.* A small percentage of cases whose level of intelligence is between eight and eleven years are definitely insane. Such cases

are at once referred to the insane hospital, their future disposition to depend upon the effects of treatment. In some few cases there is a possibility of recovery sufficient to warrant release, in others the recovery may be only partial and yet sufficient to warrant their being transferred to the Institution for the Feeble-Minded for permanent care, and in others they will have to remain indefinitely in the hospital.

5. *Psychopathic.* This group of cases comprises those individuals whose intellectual development is slightly or seriously uneven, who by mental tests show signs of mental deterioration and whose conduct is unusual or erratic. The recommendation in such cases depends upon the seriousness of the psychopathy and upon the chances that the individual has had to make good in the world. Often a change of environment is recommended and every opportunity is given for making normal social adjustments before institutional care seems inevitable. In a large percentage of psychopathic cases the cause of the deterioration seems to be syphilis and in such cases treatment is prescribed and a study of the results is made at frequent intervals.

Any one of the conditions described above may be combined with any other so that the diagnosis in such cases is not easily made. In making recommendations, the condition which seems to be the most important in determining the subject's reactions to social situations is considered. A consideration of the above diagnoses shows that the treatment of the pre-wartime moron, that is, the person who at maturity will have mental age of between eight and eleven years depends largely upon the age at which it can be known with a fair degree of certainty that a child falls in this group. If he can be taken in hand at an early age and can be given the type of training that his low mentality warrants, that is, a training for some practical life occupation then the prognosis is good. Consequently with younger children the diagnosis is very frequently deferred and practical industrial training aiming toward the formation of good habits and conduct which if firmly fixed will hold over after the period of training is ended is recommended.

The diagnosis and recommendations in older cases depends largely upon the social history of the individual. If the person has a record of steady employment for some years and some unusual occurrence has caused him to get into trouble it seems unwise to consider him feeble-minded until he had had one, two and perhaps more trials to

again fit himself into a routine where he can get along without friction. On the other hand, the defective delinquent who has a long court record and has failed miserably time and again in his attempts to go straight can be immediately diagnosed as feeble-minded and placed in the proper institution.

Let us again return to our first query, "When is a moron not a moron?" For all practical purposes a pre-war-time moron, or in other words, a person with a mental age of eight to eleven years is not feeble-minded until it has been determined with certainty either by trial or by some other method that he cannot maintain himself independently of external support or that he cannot manage his affairs with ordinary prudence. In view of this changed concept of the moron, the Bureau of Juvenile Research is diagnosing as feeble-minded only those persons who have after several trials shown that they cannot earn a living and that for their own protection and for the protection of society they must have institutional care.

THE SOCIAL UNIT PLAN AS A MEANS OF DEMOCRATIZING SOCIAL WORK

EDWARD T. DEVINE, PH. D.

Editorial Staff of the Survey, former Dean of the New York School of Civics and Philanthropy

Editorial Note: For the past two and a half years the National Social Unit Organization has been conducting an experiment in community organization in the Mohawk-Brighton district of Cincinnati, Ohio. According to the plans announced by the National Organization before entering the district, the experiment was to run for three years at the end of which time it was to be studied, evaluated, and a future program agreed upon.

Slightly in advance of this period, and largely to insure continuous effort, the National Organization had the work studied a few weeks ago by twelve experts representing as many fields of social endeavor, most of them acting as the representatives of national committees. Those who made the studies were Robert E. Chaddock, Secretary, American Statistical Association, Statistics; Miss Zoe LaForge, of the Federal Childrens' Bureau, Public Health Nursing; Dr. Haven Emerson, head of the New York Tuberculosis Committee, Preventive medicine; Charles Stelzle, religious editor of the Newspaper Enterprise Association Church Organization; Evelyn Dewey of Columbia University, Education; Rowland Haynes, New York Community Service, Recreation; Mark M. Jones, Secretary of the Employment Managers Assn., Business; John Walker, ex-president of the Illinois Federation of Labor, Labor; John Lovejoy Elliott, of Hudson Guild, Community Work; and Dr. Edward T. Devine, Social Service.

Dr. Devine's investigation dealt with the Social Unit plan as a means of securing the democratic control of social service. The following is a summarization of his report which was presented at the National Social Unit Convention October 24th. The result of the Convention was an endorsement of the continuation of the experiment, its expansion to include a wider variety of population and an educational campaign to secure a wider interest in the results. The creation of powerful national advisory groups to assist in the continued experiment was also endorsed.

EXCERPTS FROM DR. DEVINE'S REPORT

The Mohawk-Brighton District, lying a little west of the center of the city, is centrally located, with an industrial population now estimated at somewhat less than 15,000. It is a typical industrial population, mostly English-speaking, largely of German stock, with very few Negroes and comparatively few recent immigrants. Small business, the ordinary resident professions, and some modest factories are to be found in the district; schools, churches, and a branch library fairly supply recognized educational and spiritual needs.

Six months had been spent in the general city campaign before the selection of the Mohawk-Brighton District. Another six months was spent in organizing the district. When the first definite service was started in December 1917, only twelve of the blocks had completed their elections. The Social Unit Experiment, conceived as an organized, going concern, has therefore been in operation less than two years..... It would be an over-estimate rather than an under-estimate to say that the Social Unit has had a full calendar year of actual experience upon which to base an evaluation.....

Viewing the Social Unit experiment in the Mohawk-Brighton District from the point of view of social work, one of the first questions to be answered is whether the experiment is genuinely democratic. There can be no doubt that in the objective sense that prospective beneficiaries are consulted in advance as to what their needs are and have the opportunity to take the initiative, both in defining their needs and in formulating measures for meeting them, the plan is democratic. Beneficiaries are consulted, because all the residents in the district are consulted, and there is no possibility in advance of any discrimination between beneficiaries and benefactors. All of the residents take part or may take part in the election block councils; the block councils actually elect the block workers, block workers in turn, become acquainted with all of the people living in the block; block workers, when they come into the Citizens Council, look upon themselves as delegates and are chary of making decisions until they have consulted their constituents.....

There is no evidence that national, municipal, or district executives have arbitrarily imposed their views and plans upon the district, while there is much evidence to the contrary. Members of the staff appear to differ in the normal degree among themselves about most matters, but they are apparently unanimous and enthusiastic in their confidence in the social Unit plan and loyal to the fundamental principle of it that the people must decide for themselves what their needs are and that measures must not be imposed upon them without their full comprehension and concurrence.

In this sense the democracy of the Social Unit plan has not been challenged by any one with whom I have had an opportunity to discuss the matter in Cincinnati.....

As far as the giving of free service during the experimental period is concerned, this is felt to be justified by considerations similar to those which lead to the sending of a new periodical for a brief

period to possible subscribers. Acquaintance is invited as a means to conversion. The chance for a hearing is essential to acceptance of a program. Familiarity with a new form of social organization is a preliminary condition of demanding it. Another not inapt analogy might be found in medical education. The National Social Unit Organization was frankly desirous of demonstrating a plan in which it thoroughly believed and of trying out certain tentative proposals which might be of great value. Just as patients obtain exceedingly valuable surgical and medical treatment as an incident to medical education, so the people of the Mohawk-Brighton District might, with entire propriety, accept whatever services were offered as an incident to the training of executives and social workers and the trying out of experiments which if demonstrated would be of value everywhere.....

A unique feature of the plan seems to be that its founders and supporters are not trying to "put over" anything except what they announce. They are interested in health, education, religion, morals, good citizenship and other concrete aims, but only secondarily. They are primarily and persistently interested in developing a plan by which people may understand, as the result of their own experience, thinking and exchange of views, what degree and kind of health, education, recreation, etc., are desirable; and through which they can put into operation means of securing these desirable ends for themselves. They recognize that in order to secure such results, skilled expert service is essential, and then when the people decide what they want, the experts must be called in to decide on the basis of their own knowledge and experience how to secure those results; that, on the other hand, the measures and instruments proposed by the experts must be so far intelligible to and acceptable by the citizens as to win their approval.

This is the Social Unit conception of democracy. It goes deeper than particular political institutions or forms of government. It penetrates to the very heart of the social order and raises the challenge as to whether the people are or are not capable of deciding, with stimulated and socially controlled expert assistance, what their needs are and how they shall be met. This conception of democracy is akin to that of the New England town meeting, the Declaration of Independence, the Bill of Rights. It may not be compatible with some aspects of party government or with some interpretations put upon existing constitutions. It has at least a superficial family

resemblance to syndicalism, national guildism, and the Soviet idea. There is no reason to think, however, that the Social Unit plan has been inspired by any of these, or that any of the features which have distinguished these three systems in France, England and Russia are to be expected in connection with the Social Unit, except their democracy. There is, of course, no suggestion in the literature or in the practice of the Social Unit of any belief in violence or of any attempt to subvert existing political institutions. During the War the Social Unit became the natural means through which liberty loans were subscribed and drives for the moral-making agencies were carried on. Its loyalty and patriotism, judged by its actions and teachings, have not been open to question.....

I think it represents fairly the general situation to say that all of the agencies engaged in field-work regard the intensive block organization as an advantage, as creating a favorable condition for a high quality of social service, whether of a curative and remedial or of a preventive and educational kind.....

Turning from the testimony of particular social agencies to more general considerations as to the effectiveness of the Social Unit plan, it is obvious that such a thorough organization by blocks would naturally lead to an improvement in case work. Need is discovered and reported earlier than under other circumstances, so that there is a greater opportunity for good relief work. Members of the Social Workers Council who undertake particular responsibilities are expected to report back to their associates as to what they have done in the cases assigned to them, and this has a beneficial influence in securing prompt action, and also tends to eliminate friction where more than one agency is working with the same family. It appears from the records that far more than the average amount of careful consideration is given to the family problems. Miss Richard says that on examining her records she finds hardly a case in this territory that has not been discussed at least twenty-five times in the Social Workers Council. When one plan fails, another is tried, until it seems hardly an exaggeration to say that the only unsolved problems are those in which a particular need exists for which no provision is made by either public or private agencies. Discussions in the Social Workers Council bring out the importance of such remedies as a mental diagnosis, a Wasserman test, on the one hand, while on the other nurses learn the value of a social diagnosis and become increasingly willing to take the advice of social workers in their own province.

The Social agencies of the city have been brought closer and made more accessible to the people of the district. The neighborhood has come to appreciate more fully the variety of resources, sometimes in a distant part of the city, through the machinery provided by the Social Unit, whereby a given local need can be connected more quickly with the person or agency best able to meet it. Social workers get from the block workers useful basic information in regard to particular families before paying their first visit. They are able, in turn, to explain their plans through the block workers to the neighborhood and thus secure a better understanding of what the social worker is trying to do. The block workers, even in this brief period, have obtained some education in social work, and they have been able to pass on their new point of view to a greater or less extent to the people in their respective blocks. Some of the block workers have been attempting to break down the barriers between the native and foreign-born residents in their neighborhood. Some residents seem to have acquired the habit of looking beyond individual problems to the causes underlying them and to the means of getting them remedied.

The plan of the Social Workers Council, which in theory includes representatives of all social agencies doing field-work in the district, as well as members of the visiting staff of the Social Unit, is to discuss at its regular weekly meetings family problems arising which involve the co-operation of more than one agency. These cases may be reported in the meeting by any member of the Council, but most of them have come from the Social Unit nurse or from the block worker in whose district the family lives. If the family has a record at the Confidential Exchange, the agencies registering are notified that it is coming up for discussion. Additional information from the block worker's census and from the nurse's records is compiled on what is known as a basis card, and also on the social diagnosis sheet designed by the Council for its own use. A synopsis of plans made in the Council and reports by the agencies appointed to carry out such plans is carried on the reverse side of the social diagnosis sheet. No record is closed until some definite conclusion is reached as "cured" or "incurable", as the case may be.

Summing up the evidence in regard to results achieved:....
I am of the opinion that definite tangible and substantial result have been obtained; that they can be measured in the testimony of cooperation agencies and in the information supplied by the executives and

workers in the Social Unit and by the families in the district; but that they are not capable of a quantitative statement in statistical form. I have no doubt, from my observations and from the interviews which I have had with workers, residents, outside friends, and critics, that the Social Unit has added substantially to the physical and moral well-being of the residents of the district; that it has led to more efficient and discriminating relief, to more thorough and constructive diagnosis of the needs of families in trouble; that it has promoted neighborliness and sociability; that it has made the ordinary family residing in the district more hospitable to visitors who come with a helpful purpose, and more discriminating as to the probable effect of sanitary and social measures brought forward for their benefit. I cannot discover that these results have been secured at a disproportionate cost. Opinions on this subject must be expressed with diffidence, as there is almost no basis for comparison. There appears to be, however, no indication of extravagance in salaries or in administrative expenses, assuming that an intensive neighborhood organization is desirable. There is no doubt that members of the staff have worked with enthusiasm and unflagging energy to promote a democratic working organization, and that they have obtained a gratifying response. Whether the new habits are sufficiently ingrained and the new associations are sufficiently well grounded to be permanent can be ascertained only as external support is diminished or withdrawn.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY LAWS IN FRANCE *

J. B. WHITTON

Oakland, California

France, like England, suffered a marked increase in juvenile delinquency during the war. Although the number of young criminals decreased during the first year of the war, each subsequent year showed great increases, until during the last two years of the fight the authorities frankly admitted that the machinery of the law and correction was totally inadequate to meet the problem.

The causes were in general as follows: (1) the loss of paternal control, due to the fathers long absence at the front; (2) the loss of maternal control, especially among the poorer classes, because so many mothers were employed in factories; (3) the demand for the labor of boys had made them independent in means and in feelings, so that they were subjected to unusual temptations; (4) overcrowding of cities because of the presence of great numbers of soldiers, refugees, or munition workers had lowered the general morality and increased the temptations which lead children to wrongdoing.

The problem, then, was a result of changes which war has wrought upon the environment of the child. But it was aggravated by the inadequacy of the correctional system. Let us examine briefly into this system.

The French juvenile court is as yet an experiment. Going into effect March 4, 1914, but five months before the war, it has had no chance to develop under normal conditions. The system in itself does not establish what Americans consider the true juvenile court, but in the main merely changes certain portions of the procedure of the regular courts. The two essential elements were considered to be: (1) a court set aside for the trial of child offenders; (2) the co-oper-

*The author of this article went to France in the spring of 1917 with the University of California Ambulance Corps. When the U. S. Army took that service over, in the fall of that same year, weak eyes kept him out of the service and he accepted a post with the American Red Cross in Paris. Later he joined the Foreign Legion of the French Army and when demobilized was an officer in the French Artillery. While with the Red Cross, Mr. Whitton served as a legal adviser to the Children's Bureau, of which Dr. William Palmer Lucas was chief. Under Dr. Lucas' direction a study was made of the French laws for women and children, including the Juvenile Court Law. The author believes that some of the French laws are in advance of ours.—*Editor.*

ation of the law with private societies for the reform of juvenile delinquents. Certain reform societies have been developed in France, (such as the *Patronage des Enfants* of M. Rollet at Paris), which receive delinquents, find homes for them in the country, and supervise the care and reform of children even until manhood. The law of 1912¹ gave such societies semi-official standing, and provided that children could be committed to them instead of to state prisons or reform schools, the state to pay a certain sum for their care.

If a child commits a crime,² its case is handled as follows: it is brought before the *juge d'instruction* for preliminary hearing, and pending the final disposition of the case the court may order the child placed in the custody of some reliable person or institution instead of in jail. If no person or institution is available, or if the court believes it wiser, the child can be confined in jail, separated from other prisoners. At this preliminary hearing, the court enters a verdict of *non-lieu* if there is not sufficient evidence to hold the child.

If the court decides that the child should be held over for trial, he appoints a *rapporteur* or investigating officer, who, in accord with the French system of procedure, goes out and gathers the evidence. He is supposed to inquire into the moral and material situation of the family, the character and antecedents of the child, its education, environment, and may suggest best methods for its reform. This *rapporteur* is in no sense like our probation officer except that he obtains evidence of all circumstances of the case. The court may order a medical examination; but it is not compulsory or even usual in these cases. After receiving the report of the *rapporteur* the judge sends the case to the trial court.

If the child is below 13, the court will be a special chamber of the civil court; if over 13, a special chamber of the criminal court. In large counties, as Paris, a special court is provided for children; in other counties, the usual court sits on special days upon cases of juvenile delinquency. In any case the court consists of three judges. While the public is excluded, there are usually present from a dozen to twenty-five people, including from one to six policemen, clerk, functionaries, witnesses, members of family, and representatives of charitable institutions.

1. "Law of July 22, 1912;" "Decree of August 31, 1913"; "Circular of January 30, 1914".

2. A "child" is a person under 18 years of age.

The ordinary rules of criminal procedure are applied, except that the court is given greater discretion in disposing of the case. If the accusation is proven the courts must then decide whether or not the offender acted with "discernment", that is, whether he acted with understanding that he was committing the crime. If under the age of 13 the child is presumed to have acted without discernment. In such cases the child is put on probation, and placed at home, in a reform school, or in a charitable institution for a definite period. At the end of this period, a re-hearing of the case is had; if the child is then taken from its parents, the latter may petition after a year has elapsed, for its return. The case may be brought up at any time for a re-hearing, upon the recommendation of the probation officer. These probation officers must visit the children from time to time and report to the judge.

If the child has acted with discernment, and is between the ages of 13 and 16, he is subject to the penalties of the criminal law, somewhat modified. In general, if imprisoned his term will be about one half of that which an adult would receive. If he is over 16 and has acted with discernment he is subject to all the penalties of an adult offender.

To one who visits the various institutions of the correctional system of France, the following faults appear in the present treatment of juvenile delinquents in that country:

- (1) No provision is made for the appointment and salary of a trained probation officer. Where probation is employed, volunteers are utilized.

- (2) No detention home has been provided, although private institutions, when available, are utilized by the court.

- (3) It is still possible to send to prison a child of 13 to 18, pending trial; and to commit for a term of years a child of 13 to 16, who has committed a crime with discernment, or a child of 16 to 18 who has committed a crime. In the child's prison of Paris I found children confined in separate cells, without recreation, or any correctionary or educative employment. Their only task was the making of small paper flags.

- (4) No provision is made for medical or mental examination, except where there is an obvious presumption of mental trouble, or when a young prostitute is suspected of having a venereal disease. M. Paul Kahn, who represents the *Patronage des Enfants* in the Juvenile Court of Paris stated that out of 20,000 delinquents examined

in the last four years, only 70 were given mental or physical examination by court order.

(5) The juvenile court is so organized as to make an informal examination of the child's case almost impossible. The presence of so many officials in the court room tends to frighten the child; the formal procedure makes any "heart-to-heart talk" between judge and child impracticable.

(6) The law pre-supposed the existence or creation of "patronages" or private societies for the care of juvenile offenders, especially to handle first offenders, and wayward children before they had actually committed some serious offense. But these societies have not developed as was expected. This is natural, of course, since the war commenced soon after the law started to operate. In many counties no such societies exist; in others, they are overcrowded and utterly inadequate. Thus the judge must commit the child to the state prisons or reform schools, which at present do not meet the problem.

In general, one's impression is that the idea of punishment is too prevalent in France. The need of reform and re-construction of the delinquent are being more and more impressed upon the authorities, and the new law is a big step in advance. But what France lacks more than anything else is a determined movement to better the environment which leads to the making of young criminals. The great playground movement which has swept all over America has as yet made no impression in France. And therefore, although her correctional system can be greatly improved, France's greatest need today in solving this great problem, is a nation-wide movement to better the environment of its children.

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CORRESPONDENCE AND DISCUSSION

REPORT OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL DIVISION OF MICHIGAN DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH FOR APRIL, MAY, AND JUNE, 1919

The Psychological Division of the Michigan Department of Health was organized March 15, 1919. The actual making of the mental examinations began on the first of April. This report covers the first three months' work.

During this period 169 examinations were given, but at the writing of this report seven of these had not been completely diagnosed and so were ignored in the statistical summary, which thus includes 162 cases. Of these 162 cases two were diagnosed as insane, were given further examinations by psychiatrists and consequently committed to state institutions for the insane.

The remaining 160 cases were fit subjects for the measurement of intelligence, and a statistical study of the results is of interest. I will state briefly the method used in making the examinations. Each subject was given the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests, and the mental age estimated on this basis. Other tests were used to supplement the Binet in practically every case. These were chosen according to the needs of the individual case and were mainly for the purpose of discovering special abilities and disabilities. As a basis for statistics it seems advisable to take into consideration only the mental age.

The accompanying table shows the distribution, that is, the percentage of cases at each mental age, ranging from 7 to 18 years. All the subjects were 16 years

or above chronologically and hence have reached the limit of mental development. It is therefore not necessary to allow for further growth in potential ability.

Mental Age	No. of Cases	Per cent
7- 7.11.....	7	4.0
8- 8.11.....	12	7.5
9- 9.11.....	13	8.1
10-10.11.....	28	17.5
11-11.11.....	28	17.5
12-12.11.....	17	10.6
13-13.11.....	24	15.0
14-14.11.....	20	12.5
15-15.11.....	2	1.25
16-16.11.....	5	3.1
17-17.11.....	3	2.0
18-18.11.....	1	.6
Total.....	160	

Diagnosis	No. of Cases	Per cent
Feeble-minded.....		31.0
Institutional.....	37	
Release.....	12	
Borderline.....	34	21.0
Subnormal.....	19	11.9
Dull-Normal.....	37	23.0
Normal.....	17	10.6
Superior adults.....	4	2.5
Total.....	160	
Mental disease.....	2	
Total.....	162	

20 per cent rank below 10 years—institutional cases by conservative estimate.

55 per cent rank below 12 years—definitely feeble-minded by Dr. Goddard's standard.

81 per cent rank below 14 years—below average according to U. S. Army standard.

94 per cent rank below 16 years—below average by Dr. Terman's standard.

I am giving the exact mental ages rather than the diagnosis, because standards of mentality differ among psychologists, and are changing as we obtain more data regarding actual conditions. The interpretation of these results depends largely on the point of view, in comparing them with other findings.

At the present time it is generally conceded that no adult with a mental age below ten years is capable of living a normal social life under ordinary conditions of society. These are considered institutional cases. Twenty per cent of our subjects fall into this division.

Until a few years ago the upper limit of feeble-mindedness was set at 12 years. This was found by mental tests made on individuals who were already inmates of the institutions for the feeble-minded by reason of having shown that they lacked the mentality to manage their own affairs. This standard is now thought to have been too high owing to the fact that we find many individuals with the mental age of from 10 to 12, who are capable of living normally outside of institutions. However, it is interesting to note, that according to this less conservative estimate 55 per cent of our subjects are institutional cases.

Recently in determining the intelligence of the drafted men in the U. S. Army the average mental age was found to be 14 years. 81 per cent of our subjects fall below this level. The average mental age of our group of subjects is 11.5.

Until last year when the results of the army tests were made known the average mental age of the general population was thought to be 16 years. 94 per cent of our subjects fall below this level. Thus according to Dr. Terman's standards there are only 6 per cent of our group who can be considered average or above.

In a general way it matters little whether we interpret these results by a conservative or liberal standard. It is clear in either case that feeble-mindedness is a very large factor in the problems of venereal disease. The diagnosis which we made are given in a separate list. We found 81 per cent definitely feeble-minded, and in 23 per cent of our cases we recommended commitment to the institution for the feeble-minded at Lapeer. I believe that the majority of these commitments have been legally made, but am not able to state the number exactly as some are still being handled by our court worker.

It will be noticed that our group falls into three large divisions:

1. The group below 10 years. (20 per cent).
2. The group of the mental age of 10 to 14 years. (61 per cent).
3. The group above 14 years. (19 per cent).

The existing institution for the feeble-minded at Lapeer will care for the first group when its capacity is enlarged. The third group possess sufficient intelligence to respond to efforts to readjust them in society. The middle group is unprovided for, and this middle group contains the majority of our venereal patients. Not definitely feeble-minded, but retarded mentally, once having become delinquent, reform under the ordinary conditions of society is most difficult, under favorable circumstances they develop many qualities which tend to make them desirable citizens. Turn them back to their own surroundings and they return to their old habits. It is inevitable. In most cases the old environment means unsettled and broken homes, from which with a few exceptions they come. They must have training, sympathy and supervision, re-education in its largest sense. How are we to give it to them? There is only one solution. We need an institution for defective delinquents with a mental age of 10 to 14 years. By means of such an institution this large middle group could be re-educated and readjusted to society.

FRANCES A. FOSTER, *Psychologist*

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Bach, Theresa. *Educational Changes in Russia.* Bulletin No. 37, Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education. pp. 26.

Prior to the establishment of the Provisional Government of 1917 in Russia, education was denied the peasants who comprised approximately 85 per cent of the total population. The Provisional Government separated Church and School, placing the school administration in the hands of local rural councils. Democratization of the schools ensued. With the establishment of the Bolshevik regime, control of the schools passed from the rural councils to the Soviets, the latter representing the masses only. Parents associations, which had since 1905 done valued work, persisted and were definitely recognized as good factors. Restrictions regarding the educating of the various religious and non-Russian groups and regarding home instruction were removed. An "educational ladder" with cultural and vocational schools paralleling each other was established. Normal schools and teacher's institutes were provided to fit the teachers of both sexes for the lower and higher elementary schools. A reform of the Russian spelling has produced one based upon scientific philology. The university has been freed from state control and interference and placed upon a basis similar to that occupied by the western university. Likewise, the unfair restrictions upon the admission of students have also been removed. Among these restrictions now removed is that barring women from university instruction. Not the least of these wide-sweeping reforms has been the realization of the need for schools for adults where they might learn to read and write. (E. K. B.)

Ball, Jau Don. *The Correlation of Neurology, Psychiatry, Psychology and General Medicine as Scientific Aids to Industrial Efficiency.* Reprinted from the American Journal of Insanity. Vol. LXXV, No. 4. pp. 521-555.

One of the most logical means of producing a closer co-operation between employer and employee is the suiting the man to the job through the study of his physical, nervous and mental fitness. The results of such a study is the subject of this article. The conclusions are drawn from the results of (1) general medical; (2) neurological; (3) psychiatric; (4) psychological; and (5) social examinations. The report gives in detail the method of procedure, including outlines of the medical and neurological tests, questionnaires used, the "Stearns' " test and the charts showing graphically the individual picture as worked out from the results. In nearly every case the laboratory estimate tallied with that of the foreman and explained the difficulty as well as giving recommendations for the correct co-ordinating of the individual's equipment and abilities with the needs of the industrial plant. The value and need of such examinations is amply demonstrated. Practical suggestions are offered for the providing of smaller plants with the benefits of such examinations. (E. K. B.)

Downey, June E. *The Will-Profile.* University of Wyoming Bulletin. Vol. XV, No. 6A. pp. 37.

A tentative scale for measuring the amount and character of volitional power possessed by an individual is offered in this bulletin. The basis of the tests is handwriting used under varying conditions of space and speed. The tests furnish

data on the following points: 1. speed of decision; 2. co-ordination of impulses or the proper handling of a complex situation; 3. freedom from inertia; 4. speed of movement; 5. tenacity; 6. flexibility or adaptability; 7. accuracy; 8. motor impulsion; 9. resistance; 10. assurance. A graph or "volitional pattern" may be drawn at the conclusion of the tests, thus securing a complete picture of the volitional side of the reagent. The author states that, as yet, there has been found no correlation between intelligence and the will-profile or volitional pattern. (E. K. B.)

Greenfield, Arthur D. *Some Legal Aspects of the Narcotic Drug Problem, with Particular Reference to Medical Practice.* Reprinted from the New York Medical Journal for July 19, 1919. pp. 10.

This brief discussion centers about the legal aspect of a physician's prescription of narcotic drugs to an addict. The discussion is occasioned by the recent interpretation of the Harrison narcotic law by the Federal Supreme Court. Two points are emphasized: the absolute precedence of the Federal law over State or Municipal law in case of conflict, and the legal status of a physician's prescription. In so much as the law, in order to be constitutional, had to be framed as an internal revenue measure, its chief prohibition is against untaxed sale. The physician is restricted to administration for purely curative and alleviative purposes. The provision of narcotics to an addict in order to keep him comfortable and prevent his securing a larger supply elsewhere is definitely illegal. It behoves the physician to be careful of his diagnosis and subsequent treatment. In short, narcotics may be supplied, to persons not addicts, to addicts for "tapering off treatment" where such proves to be necessary, and in treatment of other pathological conditions.

(E. K. B.)

Greenfield, Arthur D. *Treatment of Drug Addiction.* Reprint No. 540 from the Public Health Reports. U. S. Public Health Service, Vol. XXXIV, No. 29, July 18, 1919. pp. 1577-1579.

It is not the purpose of this article to pass on the merits of treating drug addicts, but rather to advise the medical profession on what constitutes legitimate professional practice. The treatments may be divided into two classes, the "ambulatory" and the "institutional"; i. e., the former in which the patient administers the drug himself, and the latter in which the drug is given by the physician or nurse. It has been found that cures have rarely been effected by the ambulatory treatment and the patients may become infected because the hypodermic is not properly sterilized. Physicians should feel free to treat such cases according to their judgement and it is desirable that patients should feel free to go to reputable physicians rather than depend on questionable sources for the relief which they may need. (H. P.)

Kansas Commission on Provision for the Feeble-Minded. *The Kallikaks of Kansas.* Report of the Commission, January 1, 1919. Publication authorized by Governor Henry J. Allen, Kansas State Printing Plant, Topeka, 1919. pp. 31.

A summary of the conclusions reached by the commission on provision for the feeble-minded regarding the extent and character of feeble-mindedness in the state of Kansas, and making recommendations as to the care of those who are incapable of managing their own affairs because of mental retardation. Typical case studies of defective families are given, showing the extent of delinquency and pauperism attendant upon feeble-mindedness. Colony care for the defective

is urged as being absolutely necessary, and special classes in the schools are recommended for those who are retarded but can still profit by school instruction. A summary of state legislation regarding feeble-mindedness is appended. Two major conclusions are reached: (1) that too much is already known about feeble-mindedness to delay longer, and (2) that care will cost less than neglect. (H. P.)

Lathrop, Julia C. *Income and Infant Mortality*. Reprinted from American Journal Public Health, Vol. IX, No. 4, April 1919, pp. 270-274.

This paper attempts to indicate a few facts gathered in this country bearing on infant mortality. The three important facts are insufficient wage, a mother who is obliged to labor prior to and after her child's birth, and a community that is careless about its housing conditions. Many of our large industrial cities were investigated in this study. In these places the homes of men with varying wages could readily be found. In the homes of the poor, many of the mothers worked and as a consequence the infant mortality was just about 50 per cent more than in the homes where the mother was not forced to work. Over-crowding in many of the homes was another cause of death. (H. P.)

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. *The Negro and the Labor Union*.

This brief report states that the American Federation of Labor, in conference in June 1919, at Atlanta City, passed a resolution looking to the inclusion of negroes in labor unions throughout the country on an equal basis. The situation is and has been so entirely different from any "equal basis" condition that the passing of this resolution marks a turning point in the negro labor situation. (E.K.B.)

Pollock, Horatio M. and Nolan, William J. *Sex, Age and Nativity of Dementia Praecox First Admissions to the New York State Hospital 1912 to 1918*. Reprinted from the State Hospital Quarterly, August, 1919. State Hospitals Press, Utica, N. Y. 1919. pp. 1-18.

In distributing the patients of both sexes into age groups, the variations are quite striking and show that sex must be reckoned with in considering the cause of the disorder. Between the ages of 15 and 35 years, the rate of entrants is higher among males than among females; while above the age of 35 the rate is higher among females. The highest admissions among males, 265.2, is found in the age group 25-29 years; the highest rate among females, 199.0, varies between 35-39 years. The general rate of dementia praecox first admission for the 6½ years among the native population was 75.2 per 100,000; among the foreign born for the same period, 161.4. A number of interesting charts and tables are shown which give the distribution of cases at different ages between the two sexes; also the distribution among the different nationalities. (H. P.)

Williams, J. Harold. *The Intelligence of the Delinquent Boy*. Journal of Delinquency Monograph No. 1, January, 1919. Whittier, California. pp. 198.

This monograph is the result of the study of 470 delinquent boys, mostly of Whittier State School, but includes some cases also from the detention homes at Los Angeles, San Diego, and the California George Junior Republic. The author examined all with the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon tests; trained field workers supplied the family histories and observations on home and environmental conditions, and a medical examination was made of each case. The cases are classed into four "Social-Intelligence" groups, each group being then discussed in order. These are as follows:

1. Superior, with an I. Q. above.....	1.10
2. Average-normal, with an I. Q. from.....	98-1.10
3. Dull-normal " " " ".....	83-.92
4. Borderline, " " " ".....	75-.82
5. Feeble-minded, " " " below.....	75

This grouping is based on (1) intelligence quotient, (2) vocational and social adaptability, (3) heredity, environment and personal history, and (4) results of medical examination. After a mental examination a case was first tentatively classified on the basis of the I. Q. The further consideration of the data from the other three sources called for a modification of this preliminary classification in but a few cases. The percentage of cases of delinquents belonging to each of these groups is compared with the percentage of Terman's 1000 non-selected school children falling under the same I. Q. classification, with the following results:

	470 Delinquents	1000 non-selected school children.
Superior	3.0.....	20
Average-normal.....	19.2.....	60
Dull-normal.....	20.6.....	10
Borderline.....	27.2.....	8
Feeble-minded.....	30.0.....	2

The I.Q.'s of the feeble-minded ranged from .47 to .78 with a median of .67. Nearly all were of moron grade, a few might be classed as imbecile, but none as idiots. Ability to meet social requirements runs closely parallel with grade of intelligence through the several social-intelligence groups. With the higher grades of intelligence other traits become more responsible for delinquency. Those belonging to the borderline group are not likely to have normal success in life, and without adequate training do little better than the high grade moron. The dull-normals escape delinquency for the most part, though their social conduct is on the whole inferior. The small number of delinquents belonging to the superior group disproves the idea that many delinquents are unusually bright. No delinquent act was observed that could not have been performed by a boy of average intelligence. The family history studies revealed the fact that the frequency of mental deficiency among parents and other relatives of the delinquents decreased as the grade of intelligence of the latter increased.

Most of the 470 delinquents studied had committed offenses repeatedly. The results show no striking relation between the nature of the offenses and grade of intelligence, except that the feeble-minded figure less in forgery, drunkenness,

and larceny, and more in murder, arson, and assault. The average I. Q. for those who committed offenses against person was .73; for offenses against property, and against peace and order the average was in each case .80. There seems to be no indication that the more intelligent offenders escape detection and arrest more frequently than the less intelligent. This is perhaps because few juvenile offenses are planned.

Negroes and Mexican-Indians show a greater tendency to delinquency than the whites. Of the total number of delinquents the percentages were as follows:

White	Mexican-Indian	Negro
72.6	15.1	12.3

But the 1910 U. S. census for California gives only 6.05 per cent of the general population as Mexican-Indian and only 0.9 per cent as colored. This relationship is probably due to the higher intelligence of the whites. The average I. Q's for the delinquents of the three races were, White, .82; Mexican-Indian, .69; Colored, .77. Probably the same relations hold for the three races in the general population. The author disagrees with the suggestion sometimes made that different standards should be followed in the diagnosis and classification of members of different races, and of different social status. It is necessary to place the delinquent in custody, "whether he is White, Colored or Indian, whether he is American or foreign-born, and regardless of the social status of the family from which he comes." And further, an Indian with a certain mental age "is just as truly feeble-minded, so far as concerns his relation to the average American community, as a White or Colored boy would be under the same conditions."

There is no evidence in the results that there is any direct inheritance of delinquency as such. Other factors, related to delinquency, are inherited, of which lack of intelligence is the chief one. The intelligence of 950 relatives of the delinquents was determined, giving the following percentages:

Superior	Average-normal	Feeble-minded
1.8	66.8	31.4

Delinquents frequently come from poor homes, but the condition of the home is often the result of poor intelligence of the occupants. The explanation that delinquency results so often from poor home conditions lacks force because there has been no standard by which to compare homes and classify them in this respect, and because it overlooks the probable cause of the home condition. The author devised a scale for grading homes on which a home might receive an index of from 1 to 25. The results of the use of this scale in grading 162 homes show that the home of the delinquent is not consistently inferior to that of non-delinquent boys. The fundamental causes of delinquency are farther back, in the inherent traits of the individual child.

Home conditions and neighborhood conditions usually go together, and both are directly related to intelligence. The person of inferior intelligence produces the poor home and settles in the poor environment. A scale for grading neighborhood conditions was devised, similar to the one for grading home conditions, and used for the 162 cases mentioned, with similar results. The influence of home and environment in producing delinquency is not denied, but the extent of this influence depends on the physical and mental endowment of the children in question. Children with unsocial tendencies at an early age should be placed under better supervision.

The general discussions in the several chapters are followed by selected histories illustrating the matter discussed. The author deserves much credit for a broadminded attack of this most baffling of all problems of state dependents—the delinquent. Each of the several lines of investigation has been followed out in a truly scientific spirit, as regards methods, analysis of results, and conclusions given. The reader feels that the results have been allowed to speak entirely for themselves, which gives an unusual force to the conclusions. Special points of interest are: (1) The classification of cases and their study under the several “social-intelligence” groups, instead of singling out only the feeble-minded for consideration. (2) The introduction of more objective methods of getting data on home conditions, and neighborhood conditions. The two scales for grading these conditions have been more fully described elsewhere. (3) The conservative procedure in the classification of cases as feeble-minded. (4) The contention that we must have one and the same standard in diagnosis and classification irrespective of race, nationality, or social condition. This is a timely suggestion. The opposite has been proposed recently by different writers. The conflict arises, of course, from different points of view. The standpoint taken by the author is that of the practical requirements for the community and nation. The other point of view has in mind doing justice to the individual in the immediate classification. An individual is not to be classified as feeble-minded, let us say, if his intelligence is not so far below the average of his race. There is no objection to this view for scientific purposes, but practical requirements demand that feeble-mindedness be defined not alone from the standpoint of intelligence, but from several standpoints combined, all related to the relation of the individual to the community and state. Further, such a multiplicity of standards to fit each race, nationality, and social condition, could result only in confusion.—(*F. Kuhlmann.*)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

The Generation and Control of Emotion. “(1) Emotion is only one aspect of the internal adjustment which an organism makes in order more completely to adapt itself to sudden changes in its environment. The function of emotion is to reinforce the ‘interest’ of an instinct as higher control over mechanically-fatal massive responses develops and checks the later. (2) The visceral and somatic concomitants of emotion are not responsible for originating the affective state, but are anticipatory physical adjustments which enable the organism to put forth all its energy effectively to satisfy the instinctive process stimulated. (3) The optic thalamus is the center of consciousness of the emotional state. Its activity is normally held in control by discriminative activities arising in the cerebral cortex. (4) Dissociation is merely the obverse side of integration, and may take place at any level at which, phylogenetically or ontogenetically, integration has been brought about. The latest acquired and most complicated integrations are the most easily dissociated. (5) The energy of an instinctive process can find outlet along psychically equivalent paths, but attempts entirely to thwart satisfaction lead to apparently fortuitous ‘displacement of the affect’ and its attachment to associated ideas, and they are only too likely to result in manifestations comprehensively termed psychoneurotic. Ultimately then our problem

resolves itself into the finding of useful psychical equivalents and the inculcation of these as desiderata. The earlier in the life of the individual education along such lines is begun, the easier will be the process and the stronger and the more permanent the result."—*Alfred Carver*. *British Journal of Psychology*, X-1, Nov. 1919. pp. 51-65. (Quoted)

The New Moron. The experience of army psychologists has shown the need for a new concept of morosity which will include the fact that many men of low intelligence are making good in society. The limits of the borderline group must be extended probably to include all persons of a mental age of eight to fourteen years, and a final diagnosis of feeble-mindedness made only after definite attempts to make social adaptations have been made. Success or failure in life depends not only upon intelligence level, but also upon temperamental characteristics, environment and training for this environment. The latter three factors may be controlled to a certain extent, and it is by proper control, particularly of training, that society can hope to make a greater percentage of individuals in the borderline group self-supporting.—*Carroll Thompson Jones*. *Training School Bulletin*, XVI-5, Sept. 1919. pp. 76-80. (W.W.C.)

The Relation of the Juvenile Court to the Community. The Canadian Juvenile Delinquents Act of 1908 was based upon the necessity for segregating the youthful offender from the criminal. This segregation benefits both the individual and society. Much responsibility for dealing with delinquents must be placed on the probation system. There are many offenders, however, who fail to respond to probation, and in these cases an analysis of the facts is especially necessary. Juvenile offenders may be roughly divided into three social groups: (1) the normal child in the normal home; (2) the normal child in the abnormal home; (3) the abnormal child in the abnormal home. For the first group probationary supervision ordinarily succeeds. For the second group the solution lies in the removal of the abnormal conditions. The third group—the abnormal child—constitutes a real menace to society. From this class come prostitutes and criminals. Many recidivists are found to be abnormal. Whatever the defect may be, the treatment should be based on the constitution of the child, and not in the application of the theories of punishment. The work of the psychologists and psychiatrist is indispensable to the courts and institutions dealing with these children. Canada is just awakening to the need for more attention to its juvenile problems, and her welfare workers hope for a flood of light in this direction.—*Helen G. MacGill*. *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, I-3, Oct. 1919. (J.H.W.)

The Mental Status of Truants. Scientific investigations of truancy are of a comparatively recent date. In the study of 608 unselected truants, 265 were over 14 years old. A valuable contribution on non-attendance was made in 1917 by Edith Abbott and Sophonisba Breckinridge. The historical, legal and social aspects of the problem are worked out in compendious form. One short chapter is devoted to the relation of truancy and non-attendance to mental and physical defects. The relation between truancy and school retardation is worked out in the case of 1,092 boys. A comprehensive study of the mental, physical, and social facts of truancy in New York was made in 1915. There were 150 children tested, of which 67 per cent were found normal, 8 per cent borderline and 33 per cent defective. A statistical study was made of 102 truants at the Whittier State School. Two were of superior intelligence, 16 were average-normal, 22 dull-normal, 25 borderline and 37 feeble-minded. In comparing these boys with

a group of unselected delinquents, it was found that the truant group had a higher percentage of mentally defective boys. It still remains an important matter to know whether the truants form a selected group. The present study included 608 unselected cases. The percentage of truants whose intelligence is above the normal median is about 15 per cent. In the graph it plainly shows that the truants form a subnormal group. The largest percentage of truants does not fall to the definitely defective nor to the normal but in the questionable group. Placing the truants in an ungraded class can only remedy when an industrial training is included which will meet the individual need.—*Louise E. Poull*. Ungraded, V-1, Oct. 1919. pp. 1-8. (M. S. C.)

The Power to Exclude Defective Children from Schools. This article deals with the recent decision of the State Supreme Court of Wisconsin in regard to the action of a city board of education in excluding an objectionable child from school. The child, while normal mentally and able to keep up to grade, was severely hampered by a nervous and paralytic affliction which rendered him unsightly, required extra attention and caused him to speak in an extremely unpleasant voice. On the basis of these conditions, the child was excluded from the public schools. The Supreme Court, in ruling against the boy's demand to be educated in the public schools, maintained that general welfare must take precedence over individual rights; and since his exclusion was essential to the best interests of the school, the School Board was acting within their legal rights in excluding him.—From the *Journal of American Medical Association*. Reprinted in *School and Society*. X-256, p. 613. (E. K. B.)

Vocational Education as a Preventive of Juvenile Delinquency. The lack of necessary equipment with which to earn an adequate living is apparently related to the production of juvenile delinquency. In a study of the school children of the United States, it was found that 90 per cent of the school children between the ages of 14 and 16 were out of school, and that 50 per cent of those have only a fifth grade education or less. The school work is abandoned for an industrial life, for which they are unfitted, and they drift from job to job or loaf and get their start for the juvenile court. Many school courses are made so uninteresting that they create a distaste for school work, and for this reason many children go to work. The need for vocational training for our young people is shown by the number of enrollments in private commercialized colleges, trade and correspondence schools. In Chicago alone, the money spent for instruction of this sort more than equals the amount spent on all the high schools. In two reform schools, it is shown that the average age of the boy is 14 years. These boys are given half time in vocational training and half time in elementary school training. About 77 per cent of these boys make good. The question presents itself, would these boys have become delinquent if the public schools could have given them the same kind of training? This need for vocational training has been felt by social workers and criminologists for some time and the thing that its advocates need to do is to survey the whole field; psychology, pedagogy, sociology, economics, the histories of industries and labor movements and thus establish points of contact in all of these branches. Hence we believe that the greatest results from a scientific standpoint is the reformation of the delinquent and the greatest good will come by establishing more practical institutions of learning known as manual and vocational training schools, where practical instruction of every day life can be had.—*Arthur Frank Payne*. *School and Society*, X-253, Nov. 1, 1919. pp. 509-513. (M. S. C.)

NOTES AND COMMENT

Dr. J. E. W. Wallin, who has been Chairman of the Committee on Defective Children for the Missouri Children's Code Commission during the last four years, has been appointed Chairman of the Committee on Mental Defectiveness for the Missouri Conference for Social Welfare and elected President of the Department of Special Classes of the Missouri State Teachers Association. The latter department was organized at the recent meeting of the association.

Dr. David Spence Hill has been elected President of the University of New Mexico. Dr. Hill was formerly director of research for the public schools of New Orleans where he made some important studies in juvenile problems.

Professor Vernon Kellogg is on extended leave of absence from Stanford University to engage in work with the National Research Council.

Dr. Samuel C. Kohs of Reed College has been made diagnostician to the Juvenile Court of Portland, Oregon.

The Ohio Institution Journal announces the completion of the new buildings for the Bureau of Juvenile Research, erected at a cost of more than \$100,000. The work of Dr. H. H. Goddard as director of the Bureau is highly commended by members of the State Board of Administration.

Dr. Thomas H. Haines is engaged in a survey of feeble-mindedness in Mississippi, acting as scientific adviser to the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. He writes: "We have ready for introduction into the Senate and House a new insanity code which will preserve all that it worth preserving in the present statutes and at the same time put the commitment of the insane in the hands of physicians instead of professional jurymen. In addition to this it will provide for the scientific organization of hospitals, change their names to state hospitals, do much to improve their management from partisan politics, provide for voluntary commitment, temporary care and emergency commitment of the insane and also provide for the community service of the state hospitals."

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THE INTELLIGENCE OF MILITARY OFFENDERS

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The original data for this study were obtained from the testing of the military prisoners at the United States Disciplinary Barracks, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, where the writer was stationed as psychological examiner during the winter of 1918-19. These prisoners were, with only a few exceptions, men convicted by general court-martial in many camps in this country and overseas. Trial by general court-martial takes place only for serious offense, and so it will be seen that the group concerning which the facts in this article are presented is made up of the worst offenders of the army.

The psychological examination of the Leavenworth prisoners was carried out exactly as were all the other army psychological examinations. For the benefit of those not familiar with the work of the army psychologists it may be well to state that the men were examined and upon the basis of the examination were rated according to their intelligence in one of the five groups designated by the letters A, B, C, D, and E. A designated the highest ranking individuals, and E the lowest. Two forms of group examinations were used, one for the men who were fairly proficient in the reading and writing of English, and the other for men who were relatively illiterate in any language or who did not have sufficient knowledge of English to do themselves justice in the first test. While the procedure in all the camps was not uniform, it was general practice to send to the second examination all men who had not completed the work of the fifth grade of an American school. In case a man failed on the group test, he was given a special individual examination by a trained examiner using one of the standard scales for the measurement of intelligence, the Stanford-Binet test or the Point Scale, and

the final rating of the subject was given on the basis of this test.

In Table I is presented a distribution of the intelligence ratings of the Leavenworth prisoners compared with a distribution of grades received by a large sampling of the white draft. This latter distribution is the one presented by the Psychological Service as representative of the mental level of the million and a half men examined by the army psychologists.

TABLE I. INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF PRISONERS CONFINED AT UNITED STATES DISCIPLINARY BARRACKS, FORT LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Numbers	201	633	700	799	538	300	197	3368
Per cents	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	
White draft								
Per cents	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

The distributions in Table I indicate that the Leavenworth prisoners form a group which is average or normal as far as intelligence is concerned. There is a slight tendency for the prisoners' grades to run higher, but this tendency is hardly strong enough to be called significant. Further study of individual records suggested that the distribution of grades might be influenced by the inclusion of the records of the conscientious objectors, who, as a group, tested very high. To determine the influence of this factor the records were separated into two groups, those of the objectors and those of the non-objectors. The distribution for these two groups is shown in Table II. Except for a very slight exchange in the C- and D groups, the distribution for the non-objectors is practically identical with that for the white draft. The objectors make a considerably large proportion of higher grades than do the other prisoners, but their relative number is so small that their grades do not greatly influence the total Leavenworth distribution. It seems reasonably clear that the men serving sentences for serious military offenses do not differ greatly in intelligence from any group which might be selected at random from the army.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF THE INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS AND NON-OBJECTORS AMONG THE PRISONERS CONFINED AT LEAVENWORTH. NUMBERS EXPRESS PERCENTAGE MAKING EACH GRADE.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Objectors	4.5	6.2	16.5	14.2	20.9	10.2	14.2	473
Non-objectors	6.2	19.2	22.0	24.3	15.4	8.7	4.5	2895
Total	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	3368

Although the above facts indicate that low intelligence is not a factor of extreme importance in the more serious forms of military delinquency, it is quite likely that among the 25 per cent of Leavenworth prisoners rated D or E some of the men did get in trouble through the lack of adequate mentality. Data obtained concerning some of the prisoners under confinement in the camps for less serious offenses furnish some support for this theory. From the records of psychological examinations on file in the office of the Surgeon General, were collected the figures presented in tables III, IV, and V. The distributions of grades shown in these tables are probably typical of the ratings obtained by this class of men throughout the camps of the country.

TABLE III. NUMBERS OF WHITE MEN IN VARIOUS GROUPS TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL WHO MADE EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total
Camp Dix								
June, July	99	133	86	111	36	9	5	479
Camp Dix								
Oct., Nov.	81	103	114	76	46	25	15	460
Camp Dix								
All Cases	180	236	200	187	82	34	20	939
Camp								
McClellan	27	20	13	3	1	0	1	65

TABLE IV. PERCENTAGES OF WHITE MEN IN VARIOUS GROUPS TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL WHO MADE EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING. BASED ON TABLE I.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Camp Dix								
June, July	20.7	27.7	18.0	23.2	7.5	1.9	1.0	479
Camp Dix								
Oct., Nov.	17.6	22.4	24.8	16.5	10.0	5.5	3.3	460
Camp Dix								
All Cases	19.2	25.2	21.3	19.9	8.7	3.6	2.1	939
Camp								
McClellan	41.5	30.8	20.0	4.7	1.5	0	1.5	65
White Draft	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

Considering all the white men tested at Camp Dix, Table IV shows that 19.2 per cent of these minor offenders had an intelligence rating of D-or E. This means that they are in the lowest ten per cent

of the army as far as intelligence is concerned, and when a man could not make a higher rating than this it was the practice of the psychological examiner to recommend discharge for mental deficiency, or assignment to a development battalion, or to some duty which may be performed by men of low mental calibre. If this group is considered in relation to what may be called "average intelligence of the army",—the C rating on the army scale,—we find that 65.7 per cent of these men are below the average, while only 14.4 per cent are above it. Only a few cases were examined at Camp McClellan, but the tendency of these is very plain. Nearly 42 per cent of the offenders rated only E, and 92.3 per cent were unable to make even the average rating in the army examination. These figures are quite striking when compared with the intelligence ratings of the white draft. Only 7 per cent of the whole draft were rated E, and only 48 per cent made grades below the average. This means that the low grade men are two or three times as likely to get into trouble as are the men of average intelligence, and are from four to six times as likely to become offenders as are men of superior ability.

TABLE V. INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF NEGROES TRIED BY SPECIAL AND SUMMARY COURTS-MARTIAL. 484 CASES FROM CAMP DIX.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	No. Cases
Numbers	188	161	72	44	14	5	0	484
Per cents	39.2	33.6	15.2	9.2	3.0	1.0	0	
July and August draft								
Per cents	31	38.0	16.0	9.5	3.0	2.0	.5	5258

The distribution of the intelligence ratings of 484 negro offenders is shown in Table V. Thirty-nine per cent of these men were rated E, but it must be held in mind that 31 per cent of the entire negro draft at this camp during the months of July and August were not able to make more than an E grade. The evidence among the negroes, therefore, is not so clear, but it still indicates the greater tendency of the man of low intelligence to become an offender.

There is a vast difference in the distribution of the intelligence ratings of the minor offenders as compared with the distribution of grades made by the more serious offenders at Leavenworth, as is shown in Table VI. This probably means that while the men of low intelligence are much more likely to get into trouble, their delinquencies are likely to be of a much less serious nature.

In addition to the study of the general level of intelligence of mili-

TABLE VI. PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF PRISONERS CONFINED IN CAMPS AND THOSE CONFINED AT LEAVENWORTH.

	D-, E.	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total Cases
Dix and McClellan prisoners	20.6	25.5	21.6	18.9	8.8	3.4	2.1	1008
Leavenworth prisoners	6.0	18.8	20.8	23.8	16.0	8.8	5.8	3364
White draft	7.1	17.0	23.8	25.0	15.2	8.0	4.1	94004

tary offenders, an examination was made of the relation of intelligence to the different kinds of crime. For this purpose the crimes for which the men were sentenced to the institution were divided into general categories as follows:

- A. Crimes of acquisitiveness, as larceny, robbery, forgery, fraud.
- P. Crimes of violence, as assault, fighting, murder, etc.
- S. Sex crimes of all descriptions.
- M. Purely military crimes, absence without leave, desertion, escape, sleeping on post, drunk on post, discredit to uniform, allowing escape of prisoners, etc.
- G. Military crimes of an aggressive nature, as disrespect to officer, mutiny, disobedience of orders, insubordination, etc.
- D. Disloyalty, disloyal statements, disrespect to U. S., etc.
- R. Conscientious objectors of the religious type.
- K. Conscientious objectors of the political type.
- Q. Conscientious objectors because of being alien enemies, having alien enemy relatives, of non-citizenship, and other like draft irregularities.

This classification was made only after considerable study of the data at hand, including the past report of the institution and the individual record cards of the men. While the records of only 2416 men make up the data for this study, there is no reason to believe that there is any factor of selection in the group, since the men were taken at random just as they came to the examinations. The distribution of grades shows a larger proportion of high marks than does that of the 3368 men shown in Table I in this than in the other group. It is practically certain that the distribution within the various crime categories present accurate pictures of the facts as they are.

The ordinary prisoners and the men in the disciplinary battalion are listed separately. The men in the disciplinary battalion are those prisoners whose records during the first month or two of their confinement are such that they are given a tryout with the idea of restoring them as soon as they show themselves fit to the regular organization

of the army. They are still held under considerable restraint, but half their time is spent in regular military work and they also have many privileges not accorded to the other prisoners. They are a somewhat selected group.

Table VII shows the distributions of the intelligence ratings of the men in the various crime groups.

TABLE VII. PERCENTAGE TABLE OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS IN VARIOUS CRIME GROUPS.

	D-,E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total Cases
A Reg.	.6	9.1	16.6	26.2	24.8	12.8	8.2	320
A Bat.	0	0	9.5	29.6	33.3	19.0	19.0	21
P Reg.	4.7	19.2	29.0	24.0	14.4	9.5	0	42
P Bat.	0	20.0	0	50.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10
S Reg.	0	5.3	11.0	42.2	11.0	26.4	5.3	19
S Bat.				50.0			50.0	2
G Reg.	8.1	20.2	21.6	28.2	12.5	8.1	4.7	128
G Bat.	7.4	11.1	14.8	33.3	18.5	7.4	7.4	72
M Reg.	7.2	19.7	21.6	26.3	13.5	8.6	4.0	1071
M Bat.	1.2	14.7	25.6	29.6	15.7	8.8	4.3	305
D Reg.	12.4	6.2	0	34.8	15.7	18.9	12.5	32
D Bat.			50.0	50.0				2
R	0.1	4.1	13.7	27.0	26.5	15.1	12.8	218
K	0	17.1	10.7	29.5	20.2	13.2	39.3	84
Q	15.3	37.0	21.2	15.5	8.1	2.2	1.5	136
Whole Group	4.1	15.7	20.0	26.4	16.6	9.8	6.8	2416

NOTE: For meaning of letters designating crime groups, see text. "Reg." means regular or ordinary prisoners; "Bat." means disciplinary battalion, a selected group of men held under discipline, but with an expectation of early restoration to the ranks of the army.

As might be expected, the prisoners assigned to the disciplinary battalion rate somewhat higher than the other prisoners. This superiority is rather slight, however, and in most cases seems chiefly due to the fact that fewer D and E men get into the battalion.

Men sentenced for acquisitive crimes made scores considerably above the average, and better than most of the other groups. These men form the largest group outside those sentenced for purely military crimes.

The group of men committed for crimes of personal violence is somewhat below the average, and is peculiar in that it has few E and A men. This, however, may be an accident due to the small number of cases.

Only 21 sex offenders were found in this study. The peculiar fact shown by these few cases is that nearly two thirds of these made the C grades.

The men who committed purely military offenses stand a little below the group average. This is more marked in the case of the men who were convicted of the aggressive military crimes. Among the men whose aggressiveness amounted to disloyalty there seem to be two groups, one composed of very low grade and the other of high grade men. Here again, however, the numbers are so small as to make definite conclusions impossible.

Conscientious objectors of the religious and political types are high grade men very distinctly above the other groups. This superiority is especially noticeable in the case of the political objectors.

The men classed as conscientious objectors because of being alien enemies, having alien enemy relatives, etc., (Q group) are decidedly low in intelligence. This seems to be one group in the institution whose troubles may be ascribed to low mentality. The men in this group were largely foreign born, many could speak or understand very little English, and a large proportion of them were illiterate.

A supplementary study was made of the conscientious objectors who have continually and consistently refused to do any work either before they came to the institution or afterwards. Of these, six refused to take any examination. The records of the others are given in Table VIII. The superiority of these men as a group to any other group in the institution is very apparent.

TABLE VIII. PERCENTAGE TABLE OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS IN ISOLATION AT LEAVENWORTH.

	D-, E	D	C-	C	C+	B	A	Total
Religious	5.0	5.0	20.0	20.0	15.0	25.0	10.0	20
Political	--	11.7	11.7	0	11.7	5.9	59.0	17
Total	2.7	6.3	16.4	10.8	13.5	16.4	32.6	37

Data for the study of recidivism among the military prisoners at Leavenworth were made available through the records obtained in a psychiatric survey which took place at the same time as the mental testing. Part of the information asked of the men when they were interviewed was a record of previous difficulties in civil life. Since this information was obtained from the prisoners alone, and was not substantiated by later investigation, it is not altogether trustworthy. It seemed to be the general belief among the men who did the interviewing, however, that the prisoners were for the most part truthful

in their reports. Another source of error in these figures lies in the fact that some of the worst cases were either in isolation or solitary confinement, and so could not be examined by either the psychologists or the psychiatrists. It is more than likely that some of the most persistent recidivists were in this group.

On the basis of the information obtained from the prisoners, they were classed into what may be called, for want of a better term, recidivist groups. These groups were as follows: (1) Men reporting no previous criminal history; (2) Men who have been found guilty, in civil life, of minor delinquencies, such as drunkenness, disorderly conduct, violations of traffic regulations, etc., and who had been punished by fines or by short sentences in jails, workhouses, and such institutions; (3) Men who had been sentenced to reformatories; and (4) men who had served time in prisons or penitentiaries for serious offenses. In case a man's record was such that he would fall in two or more of the above groups, he was classified for the purposes of this study according to his worst offense.

It became apparent early in the study that the results were affected by the inclusion of the records of the religious and political prisoners. Because of this fact Table IX was prepared in which the records of the ordinary prisoners were separated from those of the conscientious objectors. An examination of this table shows that very few of the objectors got into trouble before they came into the army. It may be noted in passing that possibly these previous difficulties were also the result of political or religious activities. Of the prisoners not objectors 60 per cent report clean records in civil life. Of the remaining 40 per cent about three-quarters were guilty of minor offenses only, and only three per cent of the whole group had prison records.

TABLE IX. PERCENTAGE COMPARISON OF PREVIOUS CRIMINAL RECORDS OF CONSCIENTIOUS OBJECTORS AND NON-OBJECTORS.

	Non-objectors	Objectors	Combined group
No criminal history	60.0	93.5	65.7
Minor delinquencies	29.4	5.9	25.3
Reformatory	7.3	0.6	6.5
Prison or penitentiary	3.2	0	2.7
Number of cases	2320	473	2795

Table X shows the distribution by recidivist group of the men making each intelligence rating. It is easily seen that the A men

and the E men have had fewer difficulties than the others, for among the A men 82.1 per cent and among the E men 78.9 per cent admit of no previous criminal history. It is noticeable, however, that a fair number of the E men did get into minor difficulties in civil life. It is hard to choose among the men making the other intelligence ratings one group which contains a significantly greater percentage of repeated offenders.

TABLE X. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION BY RECIDIVIST GROUP OF ALL LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS MAKING EACH INTELLIGENCE RATING.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C	B	A	Whole Group
No Criminal history	78.9	60.4	60.1	65.6	69.3	61.7	82.1	65.7
Minor delinquencies	20.4	29.2	31.1	23.1	22.2	26.6	12.0	25.3
Reformatory	0.8	5.1	6.3	8.3	6.6	8.3	4.1	6.5
Prison or penitentiary	0	3.6	2.3	3.2	1.9	3.4	1.2	2.7
Number of cases	132	529	556	703	455	261	167	2795

In Table XI the facts are presented in another way. This table shows the percentages of men making various intelligence ratings in each recidivist group. These figures show that the men admitting no criminal history have comparatively more A's and E's than do the men in the other groups. There are no E men and only 2.7 per cent A men among the prison and penitentiary cases.

There are two important conclusions which may be drawn from the foregoing figures on recidivism. First, probably not more than half of the military prisoners were men who got into difficulties in civil life, and these difficulties were mostly of a minor sort. Second, men of very high and very low intelligence seem less likely to become delinquent in civil life than other men.

The reason for seeking the aid of the army psychologist with the disciplinary cases was primarily to get an answer to the question, "Is this man of such mentality that he can be held responsible for his misdemeanors?" It is very hard to answer this question definitely if we leave out the other important factors, such as pathological nervous conditions, heredity, training, and like influences, and try to decide on the basis of mental age alone. It was not the policy of the Psychological Service to reject all men below a certain mental age and accept for service all men above it. While it was true, as

has been shown in this study, that the percentage of low mental ages was large among certain classes of military offenders, it is also true that many of the low grade of men get along reasonably well. It may be said, however, that most of the men rated E should not be held responsible. This statement is supported by the actions of the men themselves. They got into trouble frequently, and did not seem to profit by discipline. Their offenses were usually of the sort committed through the lack of judgment rather than through deliberate malice. On the other hand, the frequency with which the men of average and better than average intelligence become offenders indicates that low mentality is only one of a number of factors which lead to military delinquency. It is possible that the emotional side man's nature is more important in this connection than is his intellectuality. For the group of military offenders as a whole then, the measurement of intelligence cannot go far in solving the problem. The best it can do is to designate some few low grade men who cannot be held responsible to any practical degree under the military system.

TABLE XI. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE RATINGS OF ALL LEAVENWORTH PRISONERS IN EACH RECIDIVIST GROUP.

	E, D-	D	C-	C	C-	B	A	No. Cases
No Criminal history	5.7	17.4	18.3	25.1	17.2	8.8	7.6	1831
Minor delinquencies	3.8	21.7	24.4	23.1	14.3	9.7	2.8	707
Reformatory	0.6	16.7	21.6	36.6	18.5	13.6	4.5	182
Prison or penitentiary	0	25.4	17.4	30.6	12.0	12.0	2.7	75
Whole group	4.7	19.0	19.9	25.1	16.2	9.2	6.7	2795

A NOTE ON THE SIGNIFICANCE OF NOCTURNAL ENURESIS WITH REFERENCE TO INTELLIGENCE AND DELINQUENCY

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Just at present the attempt to connect up delinquency with the physical characteristics of the individual is out of fashion, especially with reference to the so-called stigmata of degeneracy. The work of Goring, who was unable to find such a connection in the case of the stigmata which he investigated, is perhaps of special significance with regard to this state of affairs¹. His findings can be summed up in his own words as follows: "The physical and mental constitution of both criminal and law-abiding persons of the same age, stature, class, and intelligence, are identical"². And yet this cannot be the final word. Suppose it is true that the delinquent does not differ in any way from the non-delinquents in the class to which he belongs in other respects, it does not follow that some of these classes do not furnish a disproportionate share of delinquents, thus establishing a relation between delinquency and the characteristics peculiar to this group. Further, Goring, like every one else, does find a relation between intelligence and delinquency. And he holds that the *criminal diathesis* is the important element in the make-up of the typical criminal. Now no matter how *functional* or *mental* intelligence and criminal diathesis may be, they are not discarnate. Wherever there is motion there must be something that moves; wherever there is function there must be something that functions; and wherever there are functional differences there must be somewhere a structural counterpart. Indeed, so far as intelligence is concerned, we have ample evidence showing the truth of such generalization. And, if there is such a thing as a criminal diathesis, analogous evidence will some day be forthcoming.

Neither can we identify the criminal diathesis with intelligence if we retain a modicum of intelligence for personal use. Of course if we define intelligence as the ability to adapt to the environment, why then delinquency, if detected, is an intellectual failure because

1. Goring, *The English Convict*.

2. *ibid.* p. 370.

it is a failure to adapt successfully. But modern science has ceased to find explanatory value in the logic of subsumption. In order to reach genetic and evolutionary insight into delinquency, there is needed first of all knowledge of what is peculiar to the delinquent, rather than what he has in common with the members of the group to which he otherwise belongs.

It is the presupposition of the writer that there is a criminal diathesis. He believes its basis to lie in individual differences of instinctive equipment which are, as yet, but vaguely understood. For example, if an individual from an early age enjoys cries of pain and distress of others which affect most children unpleasantly even before they know their meaning, I believe that we would have *some* basis for the development of a criminal diathesis.

It was in the hope of finding a stigma having some connection with differences of this general character that the present study was undertaken. Nocturnal enuresis was selected partly on account of the suggestion from numerous sources that it is symptomatic of the neuropathic diathesis³. Further, my general impression was that the findings would be positive. And last, but unfortunately not least, the data were available.

In reporting the results of this little study I have deemed it expedient to omit from the text most of the discussion which has to do with the validity of the procedure rather than with the significance of the results. Brief indications of the statistical methods used and other similar discussion will be found in two subsidiary notes of the nature of an appendix.

The figures to be submitted are the result of the study of 583 children. Of these 498 were patients of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute, Chicago, and 85 are the children of parents one or more of whose children attend the University of Chicago elementary school. The latter we shall call "normal". Nocturnal enuresis was considered a symptom if it occurred at or after six years of age.

3. A. Adler, *The Theory of Organ-Inferiority and its Psychical Compensation*.

4. Questionnaires were sent to 300 parents. Only 50 replied, giving data on 85 children. The sample therefore is highly selected. The writer is inclined to think that complete returns would yield lower figures, because parents with enuretic children would more likely have been interested in the carefully worded questionnaire. On the other hand it is also possible that they might have become incensed at even the faintest imputation of inferiority to their children, and have failed to reply on that account.

In all other cases it was regarded as absent. If the symptom was affirmed either by the patient or another informant it was regarded as present; if explicitly denied by either the patient or another informant and not affirmed by anyone it was regarded as absent; in the rare cases of conflicting testimony the special circumstances having a bearing on the validity of the testimony were taken into account; if the symptom was not mentioned, it was scored "unknown". The 498 patients comprise all of the cases between 6 and 20 years of age classified as feeble-minded or borderline cases which had been examined at the time the work began. The findings are shown in Table I.

TABLE I. CLASSIFICATION OF PATIENTS.

	Enuretic	Not Enuretic	Unknown	Total
Feeble-minded	94	159	72	325
Borderline	32	112	29	173
Normal	10	75	--	85

In view of the large proportion of the "unknown", it seemed advisable to compute the per cent of those exhibiting the symptom not only on the basis of the number of cases where the symptom is either present or absent, but also on the basis of the total number of cases. The latter value may be regarded as a limiting value below which the proportion cannot possibly fall (in the present sample). When the "unknowns" are omitted, the proportions are shown in Table II. Tabulating the amounts of difference between the proportions shown by the various groups, the probable errors of these differences, and the ratios of the differences to their probable errors,

TABLE II. PROPORTION OF ENURETICS. "UNKNOWN" OMITTED.

	Per cent Enuretic	Probable Error
Feeble-minded	37.2	2.05
Borderline	22.2	2.34
Normal	11.8	2.36

Note: I have been able to accumulate some further data on the incidence of enuresis amongst normals and have succeeded in obtaining a much greater proportion of replies to my questionnaires. Eleven cases out of 136, or 8 per cent, were enuretic after 6 years of age, so that there would be quite a strong case even for the borderline cases. These data also indicate that the greater the proportion of replies to questionnaires, the lower the incidence of enuresis shown, so that there is reason to believe that the true proportion is even lower than 8 per cent.

we have: (Table III.) We see that the incidence of enuresis differentiates the feeble-minded from the normal in clear-cut fashion; there is a strong probability that the difference between the feeble-minded and the borderline cases is significant; and there is a fair probability that the same thing is true of the difference between the borderline and the normal.

TABLE III. VALIDITY OF DIFFERENCES.

	Difference	Pro. Error	Difference Pro. Error
F.M. & Normal	25.4 pc.	3.13	8.12
F.M. & Border	15.0 pc.	3.11	4.82
Border & Normal	10.4 pc.	3.32	3.13

Read the first horizontal line as follows: The difference between the proportion of enuretics occurring among the feeble-minded and the normal respectively is 25.4 per cent. The probable error of this difference is 3.13 per cent. The difference is 8.12 times as great its probable error.

When the "unknown" are included, the proportions which result are as shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV. PROPORTION OF ENURETICS. "UNKNOWN" INCLUDED.

	Per cent Enuretic	Probable Error
Feeble-minded	23.9	1.70
Borderline	18.5	1.99
Normal	11.8	2.36

TABLE V.

	Difference	Pro. Error	Difference Pro. Error
F. M. & Normal	17.1	2.91	5.88
F. M. Border	10.4	2.62	3.97
Border & Normal	6.7	3.09	2.17

And the validity of these differences is shown by Table V. Considering that these values are limiting values, there seems to be no occasion to modify the conclusions arrived at on the basis of tables II and III.

In order to throw further light on the relation of enuresis to mental defect, the relation of enuresis to the intelligence quotients of our cases was studied. The 101 cases without either positive or negative information about enuresis were omitted from further consideration, as were 37 other cases who had not been given complete Binet examinations so that an intelligence quotient could not be computed. For the 360 remaining cases, the coefficient of correlation between enuresis and the intelligence quotient was found to be -0.33 . The exact probable error of this coefficient cannot be determin-

ed at present, as the formula for computing it is not yet known, but it is less than 0.06, so that there can be little doubt about the validity of the relation. But when this relation is studied more in detail, it is seen to be as in Table VI. It will be seen that the incidence of

TABLE VI.

Intelligence Quotient	0-	40-	50-	60-	70-	80-	90-100
Number of cases	30	20	38	77	128	53	14
Per cent enuretic	63	60	40	31	23	24	36

The first column reads: of 30 cases whose intelligence quotients are between 0 and 40, 63 per cent are enuretic.

enuresis decreases until we reach an intelligence quotient of about .75, and then increases again. The proportion of enuretics between .90 and 1.00 is as great as between .50 and .60. Now, if we remember that the cases between .90 and 1.00 were found to be defective not because of the psychological rating, but in spite of it, and that there are a great many people with intelligence quotients between .90 and 1.00, but that very few of them are brought to psychopathic clinics, this increase after we reach the higher "mental" levels seems to be suggestive. It would in fact seem to indicate that enuresis is associated with some important characteristic of the mentally defective, or of some subdivision of the mentally defective, other than psychological tests. Or, to state the thing in terms of correlation, the correlation of enuresis with mental defect is independent of its correlation with psychological tests⁵.

It would, of course, be of considerable interest to learn something more definite about this characteristic or tendency of which enuresis is symptomatic. Accordingly I investigated the relation of enuresis to delinquency in this same group. The patient was considered delinquent if he had been guilty of persistent theft, of burglary, truancy, persistent lying, masturbation (if accompanied by the tendency of teaching others this practice,) sex perversion, illegal coitus, and other serious forms of legally punishable delinquency. In fact the patient was considered non-delinquent only if the absence of all forms of misconduct was specifically affirmed by a well informed and apparently truthful informant, or if the nature of the misconduct was ill-defined and apparently trivial. The informant might say, for example, that the child was disobedient and hard to manage, but,

5. I am assured both by Dr. S. N. Clark, psychiatrist of the Institute, and by Mr. H. L. Harley, the psychologist, that enuresis was given no weight whatever in arriving at a diagnosis of mental defect.

when pressed for particulars, only such details as being late for meals or frequent failure to perform some household task could be elicited.

Obviously, it would have been better to study separately the various forms of delinquency. But, with the number of cases at my disposal, that did not seem feasible. It would also have been better to use some quantitative measure of delinquency, such as the age of onset and the persistency of the delinquent conduct. But here again the necessary information was lacking in so many cases that the total number would have been too seriously reduced. As we have seen, the 498 cases with which we started were reduced to 397 by the rejection of cases having no information about enuresis; 37 others were rejected on account of the incompleteness or lack of the psychological examination, reducing our number to 360. Further, in 82 cases referred mainly for psychological examination it was impossible to determine whether they would classify as delinquent or non-delinquent, there being no information whatever about their conduct. That left 278 cases. Further subclassification would have left me with no samples at all.

It may occur to the reader that the rejection of cases lacking only one item of information is a wanton waste of usable knowledge. Thus, of the cases lacking information about delinquency, many had complete psychological examinations, and *vice versa*. The coefficient of correlation for any two characteristics might be determined on the basis of all the cases exhibiting these characteristics, regardless of the fact whether or no they also exhibit a third or fourth characteristic to be taken into account later on. But a single relation found to exist in a group so highly selected as are the patients of a psychopathic institute is of very little value, as we shall see presently, unless other factors are taken into account. And, if the influence of other factors is to be ascertained quantitatively, the measures of the interrelations of the various factors must be consistent with each other. Otherwise chance fluctuations of sampling are likely to produce erroneous results without any measure of the possible extent of the error. To proceed in this way would be somewhat analogous to ascertaining the relation of enuresis to intelligence in a group of the feeble-minded, the relation of enuresis to delinquency in a group of the insane, and the relation of delinquency to intelligence in a group of public school children, and deducing from such data the relations supposed to exist in a group formed by combining

all these cases into a single group. The results would be meaningless. The exclusion of such possible sources of inconsistency does not, of course, reduce the probability of fluctuations of sampling, but it does leave us the possibility of ascertaining the probable amount of such error.

For these 278 cases the coefficient of correlation of enuresis and delinquency was found to be -0.27 with a probable error of 0.062 . In other words, enuretic feeble-minded children are less likely to be delinquent than non-enuretic feeble-minded children.

This result was contrary to what my non-systematic studies had led me to expect. Not only had I formed the general impression that, other things being equal, enuretics were more likely to exhibit the instability of mental make-up which often goes with juvenile delinquency, but of a group of 42 children none of whom were feeble-minded and 40 of whom were delinquent, 14 children, or 33 per cent, were enuretics. This group of children was thought to be characterized by the absence of secondary interests normal to children of their age, and this condition was thought to be due to innate defect of some kind⁶. Considerations of this sort led me to cast about for some further explanations of the findings.

The following considerations would seem to be pertinent in this connection: (1) The incidence of enuresis is greatest among the defectives of very low grade, and very few idiots are delinquent. The negative correlation found may be due exclusively to this fact. (2) Patients of relatively higher mentality are more likely to be referred for psychiatric examination on account of conduct difficulties than on account of retardation at school. Therefore, for the patients of this Institute, there is likely to be a positive relation between intelligence and delinquency; in other words, intelligent patients are more likely to be delinquent than unintelligent patients. Now inasmuch as enuresis is related negatively to intelligence, its negative relation to delinquency may be due entirely to the positive relation of intelligence to delinquency. In other words, the negative relation of enuresis to delinquency may be an artefact peculiar to the patients of this Institute and having no counterpart in the population at large. (3) It seems probable that there is a positive relation between chronological age and delinquency up to the age of puberty at any rate, and probably beyond. On the

6. "The Criteria of Defective Mental Development", S. N. Clark, *Jour. of Psycho-Asthenics*, Vol. 22, No. 2, 1917.

other hand it seems quite likely that the denial of enuresis after six years of age is more likely to be true to the facts while these facts are fresh in the memory of the informant than years afterwards. If so, there would be created an artificial appearance of a negative relation of enuresis to delinquency where none existed in fact. (4) 155 of our 278 cases were examined with the 1911 revision of the Binet scale, and 123 with the Stanford revision⁷. Children who on account of their general appearance and behavior created the impression in the mind of the examiner that they were very probably defective were examined with the 1911 scale, the others with the Stanford. Now when these two groups were studied separately, it was found that the coefficient of correlation of enuresis and delinquency was -0.44 (with a probable error of 0.076) for the "Binet" group, and -0.06 (with a probable error of 0.098) for the Stanford group. That is, the negative correlation observed is almost exclusively due to a group which creates the impression of mental defect in the mind of the expert even on superficial acquaintance. Unfortunately the psychological examiners found it impossible to generalize the large number of factors upon which their impressions were based, so that no very definite conclusions can be drawn. Besides, the cases in question were examined by three different examiners. Also, the mode of selection described above was a general tendency rather than a rigid rule, and at present all cases are examined with the Stanford scale whenever time permits. Nevertheless it may be worthy of note that cases of primary amentia⁸, are more likely to exhibit the so-called stigmata of degeneracy and are usually less prepossessing in appearance than cases of secondary amentia, whereas secondary aments are less likely to respond to training and are therefore more likely to be delinquent. (As a matter of fact, the proportion of delinquents in the Stanford group is 56.1 per cent as against 42.6 per cent in the Binet group). It seems, at any rate, that the negative relation of enuresis and delinquency is due to the association of enuresis with certain characteristics peculiar to the Binet group.

It will be seen that so far as the first three points are concerned, the suggestion is that negative relation observed is an artefact caused

7. See Note I.

8. Tredgold, *Mental Deficiency*.

by the peculiar and highly selected nature of our sample. But the possibilities suggested can be investigated and, if the facts are found to correspond with the suggestions, the artificial tendencies observed can be corrected. And, by correcting for some of the peculiarities of our group, we will be getting that much nearer to the true relation as it exists in the population at large. In other words, we will be overcoming, in part, the limitations imposed on us by the highly selected nature of our sample. The fourth point, on the other hand, is vague and indefinite, and not easily dealt with. It seems to point, rather, to further research, and, in particular, to the careful comparison of the two groups which chance has separated out for us, in order that some basis for further statistical investigation may be obtained. The writer has not as yet had an opportunity to make this investigation but hopes to do so in the near future. The remainder of this paper will be devoted to the consideration of the other three points.

The factors to be considered are Enuresis, Delinquency, the Intelligence Quotient, and Chronological Age. In Table VII, column I,

TABLE VII².

	<i>All Cases</i>	<i>Binet</i>	<i>Stanford</i>	<i>I. Q. above .70 and between 10 & 17 years.</i>
Enu- Del	-0.27 ± 0.062	-0.44 ± 0.076	-0.06 ± 0.098	-0.14 ± 0.115
Enu-I. Q.	-0.36 ± (> 0.060)	-0.45 ± (> 0.075)	-0.22 ± (> 0.085)	0.10 ± (> 0.115)
Enu-Age	-0.17 ± (> 0.065)	-0.31 ± (> 0.080)	0.02 ± (> 0.100)	0.07 ± (> 0.120)
Del-I. Q.	0.37 ± (> 0.060)	0.43 ± (> 0.075)	0.24 ± (> 0.85)	0.07 ± (> 0.120)
Del-Age	0.14 ± (> 0.065)	0.36 ± (> 0.080)	0.02 ± (> 0.100)	-0.11 ± (> 0.115)
I. Q.-Age	0.16 ± 0.039	0.37 ± 0.047	-0.10 ± 0.060	-0.18 ± 0.065

will be found the coefficients of all possible interrelations existing between these four factors for our group of 278 children. In column II there are the same coefficients for the Binet group. Column III shows these relations for the Stanford group, and column IV for a group of 102 children formed by omitting all cases having intelligence quotients below .70 and chronological ages below 10 and above 17. Wherever possible, the probable errors are given. Where that is impossible, the probable error is estimated, in parentheses, as less than an estimated amount.

In column I we see our suspicion confirmed that, in this group, delinquency is related positively to both intelligence and chronological age. The same facts are well marked for both intelligence and

². See Note II.

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age for the Binet group, but only for intelligence for the Stanford group. In column IV the effect of everything peculiar to the low grade feeble-minded is eliminated completely, and the selection which is responsible for the fact that delinquents predominate in the higher intelligence levels is discounted in part. That it is not discounted completely is shown by the fact that the relation of intelligence to delinquency, while very slight, is still positive, whereas we know that it is markedly negative in the population at large¹⁰. With the elimination of these factors we see that the correlation of enuresis to delinquency changes from -0.27 to -0.14 , and the correlation of enuresis to the intelligence quotient from -0.36 to -0.10 . The magnitude of both relations is thus reduced to about the magnitude of their probable errors, and they lose all significance. It is however worthy of note that the enuresis-delinquency relation remains negative and that the difference between groups I and IV is only 0.13 , a difference which, by inspection, seems just about as great as the probable error of the difference, whereas the enuresis-intelligence relation becomes positive and changes 0.46 points, a change about four times as great as its probable error. It is only with reference to this latter relation that we can feel reasonably sure that there is a real difference between the two groups. At any rate, so far as these figures go, they seem to indicate that there is not a real relation of enuresis with either intelligence, as measured by tests, or with delinquency. The other coefficients in Table VII, though they may have some interest of their own, were computed only because they are needed in subsequent computations and need not be discussed now.

The foregoing analysis has been accomplished by omitting, roughly, two thirds of our 278 cases from consideration. But that is neither the only, nor necessarily the best method of analyzing out the influence of certain relations, such as the enuresis-intelligence relation, upon other relations, such as the enuresis-delinquency relation. Indeed, if all the "regressions" of Table VII were "rectilinear", the omission of all I.Q.'s below $.70$ would not have changed any of our coefficients of correlation, even though, for example, the relation of enuresis to delinquency were entirely due to its relation to test-intelligence. That all the relations in column I are changed by the omission of these cases indicates rather that some or all of these relations are not rectilinear, and that some or all of these factors,

10. Goring, *The English Convict*.

such as test-intelligence or enuresis, mean different things in the two groups.

Another way of making an analysis of the kind indicated is by means of partial correlation. In the case of rectilinear regressions, it gives us the relation which exists between two variables, other things being equal. It would give us, for example, the relation which would be found to exist between enuresis and delinquency if due allowance were made in each and every individual case for differences in psychological rating and chronological age. In the case of non-linear regressions, such as we seem to have to deal with¹¹, it does the same thing for us to a lesser degree of approximation. In other words, the allowance made for the effect of intelligence and chronological age is only partial; the elimination of these factors is incomplete.

In Table VIII we find the results of the application of partial correlation to the enuresis-delinquency relation and to the enuresis-intelligence relation for each of the four groups of Table VII. In column

TABLE VIII.

	I ED	II ED. IA	III EI	IV EI. DA
Group I	-0.27	-0.15	-0.36	-0.28
Group II	-0.44	-0.28	-0.45	-0.35
Group III	-0.06	-0.01	-0.22	-0.21
Group IV	-0.14	-0.14	0.10	0.12

I there are the enuresis-delinquency relations as they actually exist in each of the four groups. In column II the same relation is shown with the effect of test-intelligence and of age eliminated. Column III shows the actual enuresis-intelligence relations, and in column IV the influence of delinquency and age is eliminated.

Inspection of the table shows that none of the changes brought about by this elimination are likely to be of statistical significance if it were possible to compute the probable errors. In strictness therefore the results are not worthy of discussion. If however, in view of the fact that elimination is incomplete, we waive this consideration, we see that the only considerable changes take place in group II (the "Binet" group), or are clearly due to the inclusion of group II in group I. In group IV practically no change at all takes place. And inasmuch as group II, and group I which includes group II, are the only groups exhibiting clearly marked relations of enuresis to

11. Formal tests for linearity were not applied.

test-intelligence or to delinquency, we are led to a confirmation of the results which we reached previously by another route, viz. that enuresis is *not* significantly related to either intelligence or delinquency except when the low grade feeble-minded are taken into account. It would seem to follow that enuresis is a form of incoordination which operates only on a vegetative level and does not enter significantly into the complex social relations which we sum up under the headings of intelligence and delinquency.

The writer is far from being convinced that this first inadequate attempt of his to find the meaning of enuresis is in any way final even for the present findings. Rather does he think that the data in the first few pages of this paper state a problem which is solved very incompletely afterwards. But even if these findings be confirmed and it should turn out that enuresis has no real relation to psychological rating or to delinquency, it surely is related to *some* of the facts of human behavior, and this problem can never be solved with a negative answer. As information accumulates at this Institute, I hope to return to the problem and be enabled to do away with some of the technical and other inadequacies from which the present study suffers. There is need of (1) a greater number of cases; (2) more accurate information about the normal incidence of enuresis; (3) the inclusion of other types besides the mentally defective; (4) the doing away with the ambiguity incident to the use of two systems of psychological tests about the equivalence of which no accurate information is available; (5) a closer definition of both delinquency and enuresis, i.e. delinquency to be defined in terms of age of onset and persistency for the different kinds of delinquency, and, in the case of enuresis, the division of before and after 6 years to be replaced by the age up to which it actually continued; (6) the analytical consideration of other factors besides the ones studied in the present paper.

With reference to the last point, I may say that it is my impression that enuresis is positively related to what is commonly called "instability" or "lack of equilibrium". Now if we attempt to go beyond the mere impressionistic description which these phrases convey, if we ask,—lack of equilibrium of what?—the most intelligible answer would seem to be, *lack of balance of primary or secondary instinctive tendencies*. If the reactions of the individual are of a character which facilitates normal social intercourse, the individual will find opportunity to express these tendencies in normal ways, he will acquire

normal social interests, and will be called well-balanced. On the other hand, failure to acquire such interests leaves the individual without strong interests which can find satisfaction in a civilized environment and, without the "balance" which such interests give, his conduct is bound to be impulsive and likely to result in social maladjustment¹². But, if the impulses which lack "balance" in the sense indicated are relatively weak, the individual is indeed likely to be unsuccessful and dissatisfied, but the constraints which society imposes on all of us are likely to be sufficient to keep him from overt and persistent delinquency, whereas if the dissatisfied impulses are strong, they are likely to find satisfaction in a social and extra-legal fashion. It was in the hope of finding in enuresis a symptom of "instability" that the present study was undertaken. What seems to be needed in addition is some measure of the dynamic energy of impulses, and that is difficult to find. Of course, strength of impulse will manifest itself in the persistency of the efforts at satisfaction and in the violence of the reaction when the impulse is thwarted. But to those familiar with data of this kind, the difficulty of converting such general requirements into data sufficiently concrete and specific for statistical use will be apparent. The attempt however can and will be made.

I do not hope that all of the requirements outlined above can be satisfied in the near future. Some of them will be, in some degree at least, and when they are, I hope to return to the problem. The positive case, as it stands at present, is that, for intelligence quotients above .70, there is little evidence showing enuresis to be related either to psychological rating or to delinquency, as measured solely by its occurrence.

NOTE I.

The intelligence quotients of the Stanford group were of course calculated in the usual way. For the Binet group the procedure was as follows: For children less than 10 years old the intelligence quotient is, as usual, the mental age divided by the chronological age. Altho the figure thus arrived at is probably not strictly equivalent to the Stanford intelligence quotient, there are no direct comparisons of these two scales known to me, and it is probably better to use the actual figures than to make corrections of dubious value. Above 10 years however it becomes absolutely necessary to make a correction. As has been pointed out fre-

¹² Singer, *Dynamic Psychology and the Practice of Medicine*.

quently, Binet's official directions for computing mental ages fail to take account of the fact that there are only 10 tests in a five year interval and gives each of these tests a value of 1-5 year only, whereas each of the 5 twelve year tests should, logically, have a value of 2-5, and each of the 5 fifteen year old tests a value of 3-5 of a year. Consequently an individual may pass all of the tests up to 10 years, inclusive, all of the 12 year tests except one, all of the 15 year tests except one, and have a mental age of only 11 3-5 years, but by passing only two additional tests he will reach a mental age of 15 years. In order to make some correction for this condition of affairs, it was assumed that the "average adult" would reach a mental age of 12 3-5 years by the 1911 scale. Adulthood was taken to be equal to 15 years, and a proportionate allowance was made for ages intermediate between 10 and 15 years. The justification for this procedure (such as it is) is as follows: S. C. Kohs gave the Vineland revision of the Binet scale to 116 "normal" patients of the House of Correction, except that only 2 of the 4 tests at 15 years were given. Their average score was 11 3-5 years. Allowing for the differences between the Vineland scale and the 1911 scale, and making some allowance for the probable inferiority of Kohs' "normals", I arrived at a probable equivalent of 12 3-5 for the 1911 scale. No other basis for comparison is known to me. I have no defense for this rough and ready procedure. The choice I had was either to make some such correction, or to drop the work, and it is partly for this reason that separate figures are given for the Binet group where-ever possible. It is of some interest to note that the increase in the incidence of enuresis at the higher mental levels occurs in the same fashion in the Binet group and in the Stanford group. The figures follow:

Intelligence Quotient	0-	40-	50-	60-	70-	80-	90-100
Number of cases, Binet	21	8	20	40	84	22	6
Per cent enuretic	71	50	33	25	27	9	50
Number of cases, Stanford	9	12	18	37	44	31	8
Per cent enuretic	44	67	50	38	16	35	25

NOTE II.

The points discussed in this note have to do with issues which are, in some sense, debatable, so that some justification seems needed for the method actually chosen. No other points are discussed, and there is no attempt to teach statistics to those not familiar with the subject.

It was necessary to use three different methods in order to find the coefficients of correlation of Table VII. In the case of the intelligence-chronological age relation both variables vary continuously. The formula used here is that of the familiar "product-moment" coefficient of Pearson. No special reference is needed to justify its use, and the formula for its probable error, as well as the fact that the probable error so found is strictly correct only in the case of normal correlation, is equally well known. The only pre-supposition on which the formula for the product-moment coefficient is based is that of rectilinear regression. The linearity of this particular regression was not investigated by me, because it did not seem worth while. For interpreting the significance of this coefficient in cases of non-

13. The Practicability of the Binet Scale and the Question of the Borderline Case. Publications of the Research Dep't., Chicago House of Correction, Bull. No. 3, Psychopathic Dep't. Series No. 2.

linear regression the reader is referred to my discussion of this point in a previous paper¹⁴.

In the case of the enuresis-delinquency relation, our two variables are classified in alternate categories, that is, each individual is classed as delinquent or non-delinquent, as enuretic or non-enuretic. Doubtless, the underlying causes of delinquency and enuresis vary continuously from individual to individual, but the continuous measures of this condition are not at our disposal. Many indices have been proposed as measures of relation under such circumstances. But, while all of them are zero in the absence of association, and most of them vary between the limits of 1 and -1, they do not, unfortunately, yield identical values for identical data in the case of the intermediate values. It is therefore necessary to indicate the index actually used, in this instance Pearson's tetrachoric coefficient of correlation¹⁵. This index was chosen because it alone is strictly analogous to the product-moment coefficient, (and that only when the presuppositions underlying its derivation are satisfied), and is therefore the only index from which it is possible to derive an equation depicting the relation as it really exists. It is the only index having direct equivalents in physical reality. Also it is the only index which lends itself to further analysis by means of partial correlation¹⁶. The presuppositions of this coefficient are linear regression and normal distribution of both variables. Of course, the distribution of the variables cannot be investigated in the case of a dichotomous classification, but it is quite certain that enuresis would not be distributed normally if its incidence were plotted according to the ages at which it actually stopped. But, if we had such data, we would not use the tetrachoric coefficient, and for the data we do have, we have to assume only that the fact of enuresis before or after 6 years is determined by *some cause* which is distributed normally, a presupposition which is not at all unlikely. What we are measuring in such a case is the correlation between the underlying causes, or sets of causes, of the phenomena.

Finally, in the case of the other four correlations, of which the enuresis-intelligence relation may serve as a type, one of the variables, enuresis, is classed in alternate categories, and the other, the intelligence quotient, varies continuously. A singularly rapid method of finding the coefficient of correlation in this special case has been discovered by Pearson¹⁷. The coefficient, which has no special name, is strictly analogous to the product-moment and to the tetrachoric coefficient. It presupposes rectilinear regression and normal distribution of the variable expressed in alternate categories. Its probable error has not as yet been determined, but it is sure to be less than that of the tetrachoric coefficient, and greater than that of the product-moment coefficient, thus making a rough estimate possible. It is these estimates which are in parentheses in Table VII.

14. Psychological Review Monographs, Vol. XXIV, No. 6, p. 14.

15. Phil. Trans. A. Vol. 195 pp. 1-47.

16. For discussion of these points the reader is referred to Yule, "On the Methods of Measuring Association between two Attributes", Jour. Stat. Soc., 1911-1912, pp. 579-642, and to Pearson and Heron, "On Theories of Association", Biom. Vol. IX, 1913, pp. 159-332. Convenient tables and directions for the computation of tetrachoric "r" and of its probable error will be found in "Tables for Statisticians and Biometricians", Cambridge University Press.

17. Biom. Vol. VII, p. 96.

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Vol. V

March, 1920

No. 2

QUOTATIONS

NATIONAL INSTITUTION FOR MORAL INSTRUCTION

Confidence in the ability of this Institution to render a service to American education should be enhanced by the following information:

(1) Mr. and Mrs. Milton Fairchild have made identical wills by which property to the amount of about \$90,000 will come to the trustee of the Institution after their death, as the beginning of an endowment. This first bequest to the endowment funds should be credited to Mrs. Fairchild, since it is her estate, and she designates that it be devoted to this purpose. The will which Mr. Fairchild has drawn is merely a supplement to her will, to insure the carrying out of her purpose.

(2) The Donor has informed the Chairman of the Executive Committee that he has signed a codicil to his will by which the Institution will be supplied with \$10,000 a year for ten years after his death—in total, \$100,000. During these same ten years, the income from the Fairchild endowment fund will be about \$54,000. The Donor is in good health, and will continue his assistance during his lifetime. These two provisions mean, however, that in due time the leading educators of the Nation will be furnished quite a sum of money with which to advance their thinking and planning for the character education of children. They also assure us a good chance to accumulate a large endowment which will afford ample income for thorough research work in this field of education. These initial contributions to the endowment funds give strong assurance that additions to the endowment

fund can be secured from time to time until the needed amount has been accumulated.

The directors of the National Institution for Moral Instruction are public officials of the various states, or their representatives, and therefore the Institution becomes in a true sense a public institution in its work, although on an endowment composed of private funds. It is merely a research nucleus under their control for the professional educators of the Nation to use in solving problems in the field of character education. It has no commercial purposes, and its one objective is the improvement of character education for all the children of the Nation. These facts make it entirely ethical for all educators to collaborate with it on their salaries as educators.—*From an authorized statement, Feb. 3, 1920.*

A FEEBLE-MINDED MURDERER IN MISSISSIPPI

Jackson, Miss., Dec. 22, 1919. A notable murder trial in south Mississippi resulted recently in dispatching to the penitentiary a 17 year old white boy. The boy's own defense was that the victim had "outrageously mistreated" his younger and half-witted brother. The younger brother in whose behalf the boy alleged he killed this man, has also been made a State ward at the Industrial Training School.

Each of these boys has been given an intelligence rating by Dr. Thomas H. Haines, Consulting Psychiatrist with the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. Dr. Haines finds both boys feeble-minded. The murderer, who is 17, has a mental development of 8 years and 9 months. The other boy, who is 16, has the mind of an ordinary 9-year-old boy.

The penitentiary can do nothing to supply the lack of brain and mind to this young criminal. He cannot be reformed, because he lacks mental capacity. The time will never come when he should be set free, as competent to manage himself. By the conditions of his birth, his mind, and, consequently, his character, are prevented from developing. The 9-year-old mind of his younger brother is limited in the same way, and the Industrial Training School can never make a competent citizen of this handicapped youth.

These brothers afford striking illustrations of the need in Mississippi for a Training Colony, where such persons be *put and kept*, and *trained to do such kinds of work as they are capable of doing*. Trained in this way, these boys would be far happier than they can be when left at large, or when kept in schools designed for boys and girls of ordinary intelligence. Conditions in such a Colony would be adapted to their limited intelligence. Being suitably employed in a world thus adapted to their limitations, they would live the happiest possible lives.

If the State had had such an institution, these boys, known to be feeble-minded, as they must have been by the teachers in the schools where they attended, would have been placed years ago in the institution. The younger brother would not have been teased by the victim of the older brother, and the older brother would not have had the occasion or the opportunity to kill his man.

A State Training School for the feeble-minded is not only a humane plan for managing the feeble-minded themselves. It provides an economic institution on the part of the State, in that it saves lives and property which are destroyed by the feeble-minded when they are allowed to run at large.—*From the News Bulletin of the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*

FEEBLE-MINDED PAUPERS IN MISSISSIPPI

Jackson, Miss., Dec. 29, 1919. Mississippi county poor farms shelter many paupers who are parasites simply because they have not enough brains to make their own livings. A particularly striking instance of this has been found by Dr. Thomas H. Haines, Scientific advisor to the Mississippi Mental Hygiene Commission. A north Mississippi county poor farm is sheltering eight white persons. Every one of these persons is in the poor farm for no other reason than that he is short-witted. There are three males and five females, ranging in age from 23 to 76.

That feeble-mindedness runs in families is emphasized by this group of poor house inmates. Twin sisters and a brother, all past 70, have been in this poor house for 18 years. Two other members of the same family came to the poor house with them. They were feeble-minded. They died in the poor house. There were three other members of this family, feeble-minded, who died before their father. These three old short-witted paupers, brother and sisters, are useless to society. They have always been parasites upon the community, as were the rest of their family. Such a family of parasitic feeble-minded persons certainly raises the question as to the wisdom of allowing such children to be born into the world.

Some intelligent control in this county, years ago, would have prevented this family of paupers coming into existence. This county is now spending over one thousand dollars a year on the mere food and shelter of eight feeble-minded white persons. Half of this sum spent annually would be ample to prevent the increase of feeble-minded families, and would be doing away with the necessity for a poor farm. This is what is called preventive medicine applied to feeble-mindedness.

Manifestly, counties cannot do this work. It must be state-wide in its character, in order to be effective. Mississippi needs a School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, where the sexes will be segregated, and where the feeble-minded will be trained to work. Had the father and mother of this family of eight feeble-minded paupers been put into such training and segregation eighty years ago, there would have been no feeble-minded children to inhabit the county poor farm all these years.

A sum equivalent to half the sum spent annually on provision for paupers in the counties of Mississippi would provide amply for the establishment and maintenance of a State institution to do this work in preventive medicine. This sum spent in this preventive way would not only support nearly half of the present inmates of the houses, but it would, at the same time, do away with a part of the future work of the poor houses, jails, penitentiary and orphanages of the state. Criminals and paupers come in stocks and families. A state can greatly improve its citizenship, and also cut down the expenses of maintaining paupers and dealing with delinquents, by restraining the increase of certain known poor stocks.

The Mississippi Mental Deficiency Bill, to be considered this winter by the Legislature, will provide for this curtailment of bad stocks. It establishes a Mississippi School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, and provides a plan for the Chancery Court to commit feeble-minded persons to this institution.—*From the News Bulletin of the Mississippi Society for Mental Hygiene.*

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Freund, Ernst. *Illegitimacy Laws of the United States and Certain Foreign Countries.* U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau. Legal Series No. 2. Bureau Publication No. 42. Washington, 1919. pp. 260, with folded summary sheets.

An exhaustive study of the legal status of illegitimacy, with special reference to the states of the Union. The general discussion headings are: Illegitimacy in relation to marriage and birth; The illegitimate child and the mother; The illegitimate child and the father; and Legislation for the support of the illegitimate child. Contains detailed discussion of the factors of divorce, property inheritance, and possible changes in the law in favor of the illegitimate child. Professor Freund is of the opinion that the rights of illegitimate children receive inadequate protection, chiefly by reason of the low payments and too brief periods of support. Child labor policies and other social factors are often ignored. The survey suggests the desirability of providing the following measures for all states: (1) a declaration that the issue of null marriages is legitimate; (2) a proceeding to establish legitimacy or illegitimacy; (3) legitimation by subsequent marriage of the father and mother, where the father acknowledges the child; (4) the possibility of voluntary legitimation after the death of the mother, or where marriage or adoption is impossible; (5) the possibility of adoption by the father; (6) a declaration that the relation of mother and child is the same whether the child is legitimate or illegitimate. The report contains a series of folded summary sheets admirably setting forth the salient facts in the illegitimacy laws for all states. (J. H. W.)

Rogers, A. C. and Merrill, Maude A. *Dwellers in the Vale of Siddem.* Richard G. Badger, Boston, 1919. pp. 80.

In this little volume Miss Merrill has presented one of the most significant contributions of recent years on the social consequences of feeble-mindedness. Following the suggestion of the late Dr. A. C. Rogers, the family histories gathered by Dr. Kuhlmann's assistants at Faribault have here been put to valuable use, illustrating the importance of field-work in the study of human problems. The Vale of Siddem is a picturesque spot in the upper Mississippi Valley which, in the search for relatives of feeble-minded children in the state institution at Faribault, Minnesota, the field-workers found teeming with a spawn of degeneracy including more unsocial individuals than were housed in all of the institutions of the state. From this Valley, it was found, have been recruited hordes of criminals, delinquents, prostitutes and paupers who have spread the contagion of their disgenic heritage over an incalculable area. Only five per cent of them have received any sort of public supervision or guardianship. The rest of them have been left free to propagate their kind. The cost of their ravages is beyond estimation.

The book reads like fiction, and yet is based on strictly scientific procedure. There is no evidence of exaggeration, or attempt to prove any theory or hypothesis. If the author has erred it is more than likely to have been on the side of over-conservatism. Persons familiar with the behavior of feeble-minded children and adults will recognize the symptoms of mental defect in the many incidents and

characteristics described. There can surely be no doubt as to the intellectual status of the Yak family. The conclusion that sixteen per cent of the sixteen hundred "dwellers" were "mental variants" appears all too modest.

The intimation that the state of Minnesota, despite the over-crowded condition of its institution, may have enough feeble-minded to fill several more institutions, is a timely commentary on the lack of interest on the part of most states with reference to one of the most important social problems of our day. We can hardly expect a consistently decent and law-abiding citizenship until all of the Vales of Siddem in Minnesota and elsewhere have been wiped out. It is good to have another contribution, along with the stories of the Jukes and the Kallikaks, to call our attention to the urgent need for preventive work. (J. H. W.)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Rural Clubs for Boys and Girls. Over half a million boys and girls are members of government agricultural clubs. The keynote is individual competitive work on the part of each member. The club work always focuses on the four-fold life development—the Head, Hand, Heart, and Health of the boy and girl, and is organized with test charts, honors, emblems, etc. These clubs also offer a complete machinery by which various other agencies, such as Boy Scouts, or Y.M.C.A., may reach the young people of the rural community.—*Ross B. Johnston*. Survey, XLIII-13, Jan. 24, 1920. pp. 457-458. (W. W. C.)

A Study of Race Differences in New York City. An investigation conducted by the class in psychology of the New York School of Social Work to measure the differences in the levels of intelligence of representative groups from four races, Hebrew, Italian, Negro and native American, living in two similar locations. Tests were made of 500 boys each of the three white races and 230 colored boys, in grades V to VIII-A inclusive, using the Pressy group intelligence test. All cases tested were unselected except the Italians who are somewhat above the average of the group in the schools. Distributions of scores by races and ages show for ages 11 to 13, where the number of tests given renders results most accurate, definite levels, with Americans and Hebrews about equal and highest, Italians distinctly the lowest, and the Negroes about equidistant between the two extremes. Grouping by school grade lessens the differences but the relative standings remain as before. The conclusion is that the native Americans and Hebrews have about the same amount of intelligence, of the Negroes 30 per cent equal or exceed 50 per cent of the Hebrews, while of the Italians only 15 per cent equal or exceed 50 per cent of the Hebrews.—*Katharine Murdock*. School and Society, XI-266, January 31, 1920. pp. 147-150. (K. M. C.)

Educational Sociology. Review of Dr. W. E. Chancellor's "Educational Sociology" states that it contains little of value except the title which raises the question as to what is properly the scope of this topic. Sociology, though still in a comparatively undeveloped stage, is exerting a definite "fertilizing effect" on educational theory and practice. In the education both of the normal and of the abnormal the findings of sociology influence educational aims, give light to the question of the

content of school work, and, finally, are fundamental in determining the methods and the organization which will contribute most to a realization of the accepted educational aims. The task of educational sociology is to adapt to educational theory and practice the selected portions of the general science of sociology which have the most direct and important contribution to make to the peculiar problems of education.—*E. B. Reuter*. *School and Society*, XI-265, January 24, 1920. pp. 112-113. (K. M. C.)

Conference on Mental Clinics and Social Work. In this address before the conference, Miss Farrell points out and emphasizes the need of psychological and psychiatric examinations for the exceptional child as revealed by the school system. These examinations should be given to every child who is "different in any way from the normal type". The ungraded classes of the city schools would present the problems of the entire community, problems of delinquency, of lying, of stealing, problems of intellectual or volitional deviation, of inhibition, etc. The study of these in their earliest stages would bring about a comprehension of the problems of the children who are different. And not the least of these is the truant. Miss Farrell also makes a plea for after-care which would be based on the knowledge gained in the study of the individual cases.—*Elizabeth E. Farrell*. *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-1, Nov. 1919. pp. 124-127. (E. K. B.)

A Study of Hysteria. This study is "based mainly on clinical material observed in the U. S. Army Hospital for War Neuroses at Plattsburg Barracks, N. Y.". In the course of this work there arose the question of relationship between hysteria and malingering. "Nothing", quotes the writer, "resembles malingering more than hysteria; nothing hysteria more than malingering". It was found that an examination of hysteria and of malingering by means of the same tests produced the same results. Various criteria offered by others as a means of distinguishing between the two are discussed and disposed of as unreliable. In the end Dr. Rosanoff concludes that "what some have described under the name of hysteria and what others have described under the name of malingering are one and the same thing", the name hysteria being applied when viewed from the medical point of view and malingering when viewed from the legal point of view. In conclusion, the writer gives an interesting description of the hysterical personality and suggests that such terms as hysteria, war neurosis, concussion neurosis, traumatic neurosis, shell shock, etc., be abandoned for the general term constitutional psychopathic state, simulation.—*Aaron J. Rosanoff*, *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-I, Nov. 1919. pp. 22-43. (E. K. B.)

An Application of Intelligence Tests to the Problem of School Retardation. This article deals with the methods and results of a two year experiment in a crowded school with "an application of intelligence tests to the problem of school retardation" and the establishment of an ungraded room as a coaching center for the primary grades. The special school problem presented by the subnormal and supernormal child with the frequent troublesomeness which ensues from their wrong placement as to school grade was one of the chief motives of the study. Group tests of the Arthur and Woodrow "Absolute Intelligence Scale" and the Frances Lowell "Group Intelligence Scale for Primary Grades" were first given throughout the primary grades. The child with the low I. Q. was tested individually and that child of definite subnormality referred to the department for defective children. The child was then placed in

the grade corresponding with his mental age. The child with a group I. Q. over 1.10 was considered in the light of the teacher's estimate. If this was in accordance with the I. Q., promotion resulted; if not, an individual test was given. If, the test corroborated the results of the group test promotion or double work was given the child. It was found that, once properly placed as to grade, the child progressed at an even rate without the necessity of urging or other attention from the teacher. Whenever a child, correctly placed, showed signs of failing he was sent to the coaching room. The coaching room served two purposes: (1) to give aid in school work to children from other rooms; (2) to readjust and place in harmony with the school the attitude of a child from other rooms. Often, when extra help in school work showed the trouble to be other than intellectual, it was found that remediable physical defects, irregular habits of eating, sleeping, etc. were at fault. If neither intellectual nor physical, the handicap was often found to be emotional. To remedy this last, play was offered at the right times. In the two years of the experiment the number of necessary failures has been reduced from 11.09 per cent to 2.9 per cent. Special promotions for the entire eight grades of the school have increased from 1.5 per cent to 9.4 per cent.—*Grace Arthur. School and Society*, X-256, Nov. 22, 1919. pp. 614-620. (E. K. B.)

Study of One Hundred and Thirty-one Delinquent Girls at the Juvenile Detention Home in Chicago, 1917. This study is based on the compilation of 131 questionnaires following personal interviews with delinquent girls. One hundred of these girls had been guilty of sex delinquencies, 35 of whom had been object of criminal attack; however in only 19 cases was rape the sole sex experience. There is no important direct connection between delinquency in these cases and "the uniform" of soldiers and sailors. The girls ranged in age from 12 to 18, the average being 15½ years. One-sixth of the girls were foreign born, while less than one-third of the parents were native white Americans. Religion appeared as a routine matter or vague abstraction to practically every girl. Only 30 of the entire number of girls had graduated from the eighth grade; practically all had discontinued school at or before the age of 14. The occupations entered were a direct corollary of limited education—factory workers, servants, etc. The average wage was \$7.15 per week most of which was of necessity turned over to the family. Very few had ability to cook and sew and housework was generally distasteful. In the matter of recreation most enjoyed dancing and more attended moving picture shows regularly. However there was little supervised play or recreation. The broken family was a factor in a large number of cases, while the indirect influence of step-parents and drunken and immoral parents is also shown. An outstanding feature was the usually unrepentent attitude of the girls, the regret being principally the annoyance of confinement. Three-fourths of the whole group have been run-aways, usually because of the character of the home. A few cases were mentally subnormal and some were physically below par, but there are also a complexity and inter-dependency of social factors at work. Delinquency appears to be directly the result of dovetailing, interacting, social maladjustments and the real fight against it will not be started until domestic, industrial and civic life are consciously co-operated and socialized.—*Jane Purcell-Guild. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, X-3, Nov. 1919. pp. 441-477. (W.W.C.)

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THE MENTAL AGES OF A GROUP OF 127 PROSTITUTES

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During the month following the armistice of November, 1919, an opportunity arose for testing a group of prostitutes confined in the city jail of Louisville, Ky.¹ These women had been arrested as street solicitors and inmates of disorderly houses, and were being held as menaces to the public health. They were all undergoing treating for venereal disease. Camp Taylor, situated but six miles from Louisville, at this time had some 50,000 recruits in training for army service.

The men who made the tests were all members of the psychological examining board of Camp Taylor which during the war had carried on the mental classification of some 100,000 recruits. These men had all had experience in adult testing and were thoroly competent to determine mental ages accurately. The testing was supervised by the writer who had been in charge of the individual testing in the camp.

The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon intelligence scale, as abbreviated for army use, was employed in making the tests.

The tests retained in this abbreviation are as follows, the years and tests being numbered as in Terman's "Measurement of Intelligence:"

Years	Tests	
III.....	1, 2, 3, 4	
IV.....	1, 3, 4, 5	
V.....	1, 3, 4, 5	
VI.....	1, 2, 3, 4	
VII.....	2, 5, 6, Alt. 2	
VIII.....	1, 2, 3, 4	
IX.....	1, 2, 3, 4	
X.....	2, 3, 5, 6	
XII.....	3, 5, 6, 7, 8	
XIV.....	2, 4, 5, 6	
XVI.....	2, 4, 5, 6	
XVIII.....	2, 3, 5, 6	

¹The writer wishes to acknowledge the many courtesies extended while the tests were being made by Warden J. H. Barr and Dr. A. M. Barnett.

While the use of the full test might have resulted in a somewhat higher or lower mental age for individuals, it is believed that the results for the group as a whole may be accepted as being close to what the full scale would have given.

The problem of getting the proper "rapport" was not a difficult one. The men doing the testing were in a uniform similar to that worn by the jail physician and were introduced as "doctor". The women generally believed that the test was a part of their "treatment" and that a good response would hasten the much desired "cure" that would once again set them free. It was the unanimous opinion of the examiners that the subjects, in all but a few cases, did the best that they were capable of doing. It is believed, therefore, that the mental ages resulting from the tests may be accepted as reasonably accurate.

TABLE I. MENTAL AGE DISTRIBUTION OF 127 PROSTITUTES

Mental Ages ²	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Total No. Cases
No. of Cases	1	3	6	21	23	25	13	19	12	3	1	127

Table I shows the distribution of the mental ages of the 127 individuals tested. The median mental age is 9 years and 10 months. Table II compares the I. Q.'s of this group with others referred to in Terman's, "The Intelligence of School Children." It will be seen that the prostitutes are decidedly inferior to all of the other groups; practically 70 per cent having an I. Q. below .70. The salesgirls referred to earn an I. Q. over 30 points above that of the prostitutes, and only 8 per cent of them fall below .70. Fig. 1 shows the range of I. Q.'s of the middle 50 per cent of the various groups. The mental inferiority of the prostitutes can here be seen at a glance.

Whether these 127 women may be accepted as representative of their class is not certain. Some similar investigations have yielded results substantially in accord with these findings. Goddard states that "Many competent judges estimate that 50 per cent of prostitutes are feeble-minded." The investigations referred to in the bibliography below unanimously testify to the low mental capacity of this class of women. It may be, however, that these women were caught by the officers of the law due to their inferior intelligence, and that the more intelligent women of the same class manage to carry on their trade without being apprehended. Until some data

² Five tests were not wholly complete, but were sufficiently complete so that it was thought possible to estimate within a few months what the complete test would have given.

are obtained tending to prove this, however, it will remain doubtful whether the percentage of prostitutes with normal minds is at all comparable with the population as a whole. It cannot be stated, however, with certainty that these 127 women represent an unselected group of prostitutes.

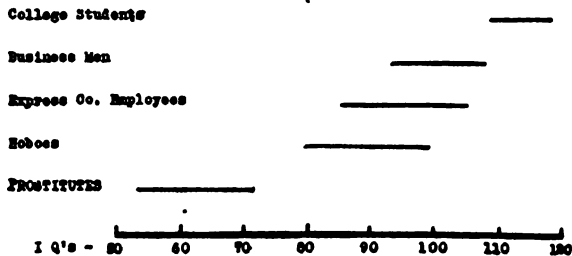


Fig. 1. Range of Intelligence Quotients. (Middle 50 per cent). Prostitutes compared with other groups.

TABLE II. COMPARISON OF I. Q.'S OF VARIOUS GROUPS³

		Per cent in each I.Q. Group											Median I. Q.
Group	No. of Cases	20- 29	30- 39	40- 49	50- 59	60- 69	70- 79	80- 89	90- 99	100- 109	110- 119	120- 122	
College students	153							1.9	8.5	40.5	43.1	5.9	109
Business men	40							7.5	37.5	42.5	12.5	--	102
Express employees	47				4	4	23	19		19	17	12.7	95
Street Car employees	82				4	23	30	33		7	2.4	--	86
Firemen & policemen	30				7	27	37	20		7	3	--	84
Salesgirls	61				8	29	25	26		8	3	--	85
Hoboes & unemployed	256				5	14	21	27	16	10	5	1.1	89
Prostitutes	127	.8	2	9.5	30	27	22	8	.8	--	--	--	61

3. All of these groups but the prostitutes are taken from Terman—"The Intelligence of School Children."

The social significance of the findings is apparent. The folly of allowing these women to go back upon the streets is evident. Many of them were old offenders and had been arrested in Louisville on similar charges on several previous occasions. Yet in spite of their past records and the evidence of the mental tests, the authorities had no choice but to thrust them back again upon the streets after a course of treatment for venereal disease. Louisville's method of dealing with the problem is not dissimilar from that of most large cities. Until the social significance of feeble-mindedness is better recognized in our legal enactments, however, proper steps cannot be taken to prevent the continuance of such conditions.

REFERENCES

Report of the Massachusetts "Commission for the Investigation of the White Slave Traffic, So-Called."

300 prostitutes were examined, 51 per cent declared definitely feeble-minded.

Not more than six of the entire number seemed to have "really good minds."

Third Annual Report—Adult Probation Officer, Cook County, Ill.

126 prostitutes examined, and 85 per cent declared "distinctly feeble-minded."

"One Hundred Female Offenders", Clinton P. McCord, M. D.,
The Training School Bulletin, 1915.

50 prostitutes examined, 56 per cent declared feeble-minded.

IMPROPER USE OF THE I. Q.

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There is a marked tendency in recent literature to use the intelligence quotient for purposes to which it is not directly applicable. This use of the I. Q. is not only improper from a scientific standpoint but is seriously misleading. This use of the I. Q. furthermore very greatly restricts the value of many otherwise valuable contributions.

The I. Q. is founded on two important assumptions which psychology cannot as yet afford to concede and which have as yet very little foundation in experimental evidence. The first of these assumes that the average limit of growth of intelligence is 16 years; the second assumes that intelligence growth is constant for individuals throughout the developmental period, or at least between 4 years and 16 years or age. The first assumption is apparently based upon the conclusion that the average level of intelligence of adults is a mental age of 16 years. This is apparently founded on the fact that the median intelligence of 32 high school students and 30 business men is 16 years. We must protest, however, that high school students and business men are not 'average' adults. High school students are selected in favor of superior intelligence on the basis of superior educability and business men are selected in favor of superior intelligence on the basis of occupational success. The really average individual does not get beyond the seventh or eighth school grade and the really average adult by occupational classification is a relatively unskilled wage earner. More recent work by Terman has indicated that the median intelligence of such wage earners as street car conductors, policemen, firemen, clerks and the like is only about 13 or 14 years. Psychological examining in the Army has also indicated very clearly that the typical or average adult has a mental age between 13 or 14 years. In other words the evidence of recent investigation has indicated rather clearly that the average mental age of unselected adults is much more probably 13 years than 16.

Within the last four years the idea has been advanced that intelligence develops regularly at a rate which is constant for each individual throughout his developmental period. The evidence of this

is very meager and is based upon certain statistical fallacies. In the first place the I. Q. is a constant only on the average and an average may remain constant while its component data change very considerably. Moreover we would expect the I. Q. to remain constant on the average because of the empirical nature of the Binet Scale which is so devised that the average child will gain 1 year in mental age for each year of increase in life age. In other words intelligence growth is constant on the average only in relation to a scale of tests whose fundamental principle of standardization presupposes this constancy. In the second place significant variations in intelligence growth are obscured in the I. Q. expression of intelligence status because any change in mental age from year to year is 'liquidated' or spread out over the entire previous ages of an individual. Thus if a child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 10 years makes absolutely no mental gain during the next year, his I. Q. for that period would not drop 100 points as the facts indicate but would drop only 10 points because the loss of 1 year in mental age is spread over a period of 11 years instead of over a period of 1 year. Similarly, if a child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 10 years makes twice normal progress or 200 per cent in the ensuing year, his I. Q. would increase only 10 points because this gain of 2 years by the I. Q. expression is thinned out over a period of 11 years.

No one can deny that the I. Q. is a very valuable device for indicating relative mental status. It is undoubtedly a better expression than amount of absolute retardation. Neither can one deny that for purposes of comparing children for certain purposes the ratio of mental age to life age is a device by which this can be accomplished. Nevertheless, while the I. Q. serves a purpose of assisting in the immediate diagnosis or present classification of an individual the indiscriminate grouping of I. Q.'s obtained from individuals of widely different ages or mental ages is not permissible. It has frequently been said, but seems to need repetition, that an I. Q. of .50 where the life age is 8 is not the same as an I. Q. of .50 where the life age is 16 because in the former case the mental age is only 4 years while in the latter case the mental age is 8 years. The former case has only half the intelligence of the latter and for the time at least cannot possibly be compared with the latter as being of the same intellectual status. Even if we assume the I. Q. to be a constant the former individual will equal the latter only after 8 additional years of life.

Many studies appearing in the *Journal of Delinquency* have attempted to use the I. Q. as a basis of classification in scientific investigation. The relation of intelligence to delinquency, for example, has been studied by many contributors to the *Journal*. The majority of these studies do not make mental diagnoses of the delinquents on a combination of clinical considerations but simply give an intelligence classification of delinquents on the basis of I.Q.'s assuming that particular I. Q. ranges indicate specific diagnostic categories. Whenever subjects of such investigation are not of the same age the value of the study is very seriously limited because of the fact that the mental age limits of the diagnostic categories are as yet only indefinitely determined. One I. Q. of .75 may mean a mental age of 9 while another may mean a mental age of 12. The mental age of 9, I. Q. .75 may mean feeble-mindedness at the age of 12 but a mental age of 12 does not necessarily mean feeble-mindedness at the age of 16. In the Army about 45 per cent of recruits had mental ages below 13, and 25 per cent had mental ages below 11. It is obvious that a mental age below 12 cannot be considered as indicative of feeble-mindedness among these recruits. In brief, whenever the relation of mental age to life age is expressed only as an I. Q. ratio, the critical student has no basis for evaluating results because he does not know the actual mental age and life age distributions of the subjects. Moreover, if such a student is unwilling to accept the assumptions of the 16-year level and the constancy of the I. Q., he cannot evaluate in his own terms the meaning of such results. And if the life ages of the subjects in a particular study are all 16 years or over then the I. Q. expression of results is not superior to the mental age expression since the I. Q.'s are the mental ages times a constant, namely, the reciprocal of 16. To the average reader the mental ages are much more intelligible than the I. Q. and since the two distributions are the same when ages are above 15 years there is no particular reason for multiplying the mental ages by a constant.

Another type of study appearing in this *Journal* investigates the relation between school or vocational success and intelligence. A recent study, for example, attempts to show the relation between vocational progress and intelligence. The study is based on the relation of vocational progress to I. Q.'s independently of actual mental ages. Certain conclusions are drawn which seem to show that there are critical I. Q. values above and below which failure or success of learning is assured. But success in school work or vocational work

is a direct function of mental age. An average four-year-old child with an I. Q. of 1.00 is unable to read while an average 12 year old child with an I. Q. of 1.00 is able to read nearly anything. The former case would show progress while the latter would not. Similarly, in vocational work there are certain mental age limits which determine the success or failure of learners. Let us say that a person with a mental age below 9 cannot succeed in a particular vocation while persons with intelligence beyond 14 are completely successful. A child with an I. Q. of 1.00 at the age of 8 would then fail to succeed (at the time at least), while an individual with an I. Q. of .65 at the age of 16 would have some likelihood of success. If the mental age of the individual is the primary condition in success, then success cannot be measured by means of the I. Q. unless the ages of the individuals are all the same, and if they are all the same then the I. Q. classification is only the mental age classification times a constant, namely the reciprocal of the constant age.

Another study by Dr. Gordon indicates the correlation between success in mental test and the I. Q. standing. Again we must insist that performance in a given mental test is ordinarily a function of actual mental age rather than relative intellectual status. Practically all studies of diagnostic mental test have indicated relation between performance in such a test to actual mental age. But Dr. Gordon shows the correlation between the performance in the Knox Cube test and I. Q. The correlation obviously is not significant unless the I. Q.'s of the subjects are based on the same life ages. A four-year-old child with I. Q. 1.00 fails in the Knox Cube test while a 16-year-old child with I. Q. 1.00 passes practically every problem in the Knox Cube test. A child with I. Q. .50 at an age of 16 whose mental age is 8, will do better in the Knox Cube test than a child of I. Q. 1.00 at the age of six, unless indeed there is a qualitative influence of brightness in test. And if Dr. Gordon's I. Q.'s are based on the same life ages then again we must say that the classification is not superior to the mental age classification since the I. Q. classification when life ages are equal is only the mental age classification times a constant.

It therefore seems both necessary and desirable to urge that all experimental studies of the relation of intelligence status to performance in tests or vocations cannot afford to ignore the actual mental ages of the subjects. It also seems necessary to insist that mental diagnoses based on I. Q.'s are unintelligible unless the actual mental ages or life ages accompany the I. Q. statements.

INDIVIDUAL CASE HISTORY OUTLINE

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In response to numerous requests for information concerning the case study work at this School the department of research has in process of preparation a research manual, which will set forth in detail the methods used, with some illustrative samples of case studies. Members of the department have been at work on this manual during the past five years, but up to the present time it has been available only in unpublished form. The outline here presented includes only the individual personal history, this being of the most immediate value in preparing a case study. It is intended to serve until the manual is ready.

The staff of the department includes two trained field-workers¹ who gather the information and prepare the histories. These people are more than field-workers in the limited sense of the term, because they are constantly studying the problem with the view to the rendering of as much practical interpretation as possible. The histories have been extremely helpful in the regular work of the School by reason of this attitude.

It should be emphasized that there is no questionnaire or "form" on which the information is gathered. The outline represents the general headings under which the field-worker is to present and discuss the findings, and strict adherence to the outline is encouraged, but no limitations are placed upon investigations, as is always the tendency in the use of definite forms or questions. There is nothing which permits a "yes" or "no" answer, or no pre-conceived categories to be "checked". Each topic and sub-topic is a key suggestion for a full and impartial inquiry. The only limitations are time, availability of the data, and the resourcefulness of the investigator.

The outline is intended primarily for the study of children who are under some form of public supervision, but is equally applicable to adults. In our work it is followed closely for each member included in family histories. The associated outline for the prepara-

1. Miss Mildred S. Covert and Miss Edythe K. Bryant occupy these positions at present. The field staff has also included Mr. Karl M. Cowdery, Mr. Willis W. Clark and Miss Evelyn Raynolds. Acknowledgments are due all of these faithful workers.

of family history will appear in the research manual, and will be accompanied by some representative histories including both the individual and the family data.

In the preparation of these outlines we have made liberal use of a number of recent standard works, to which credit is given in the list of references. We particularly wish to acknowledge that the method is an elaboration of the plan followed by the Eugenics Record Office, from which this extension has received much encouragement.

WHITTIER STATE SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH

TENTATIVE OUTLINE OF PERSONAL HISTORY

I. Chronological data.

Meaning. Includes important time and place events in the life of the individual, from birth to the time at which the history is prepared. Exact dates should be used, and places should be located as minutely as possible. Frequent references to the age of the individual in connection with important changes or events are desirable. The description should include:

1. *Name*, in full. In case of married women, put maiden name in parentheses, thus: Elizabeth Ann (Smith) Brown.
2. *Birth*. Date and place, as detailed as possible.
3. *Race and nativity*, with necessary elaboration.
4. *Residence*. Give different places of residence in chronological order, with dates of changes. Also note important factors prompting such changes. Be exact as possible.
5. *Incidence of social condition*. Time, place, and age at which the social conditions involved were first observed or recorded. (e. g., beginnings of delinquency, dependency, pauperism, or other conditions.)
6. *Public wardship*. Details of court handling, institution residence or detention, etc., with dates, ages, and reasons. Include data on probation, commitment, parole, discharge, etc.
7. *Marriages, divorces, etc.*
8. *Death*. Give exact date, place, age, cause.

Important sources. Official vital statistics; relatives; personal interviews; institution and other official records.

II. Intelligence.

Meaning. Refers to *mental capacity*, without regard to education, training and experience, except insofar as such conditions may be indicative of capacity. Since we are chiefly concerned with social factors, the definition given by Stern furnishes a good working basis: "Intelligence is a general capacity of an individual to adjust his thinking to new requirements: it is a general mental adaptability to new problems and conditions of life." See also Terman's discussion of other conceptions of intelligence. The following items should be included in the report:

1. **Measurements.** Results of psychological tests, with conclusions of examiners as to mental level, special characteristics, probable development, etc. Give results in detail with examiner's interpretations. Examination results should ordinarily be presented in order of date except where some especially valuable diagnosis is available in which event it should be given first.

2. **Developmental facts.** A chronological description of the individual's mental development, concretely illustrated with incidents. Also include physical or other factors which may have been related to mental development.

3. **Social aspects.** An account of intellectual reactions to practical life problems, including education, vocation, conduct, etc.

Important sources. Test results; judgments of psychologists, teachers, physicians and (cautiously) relatives; personal interviews.

III. Temperament.

Meaning. Refers chiefly to the expression of character in the form of *mood*. Ranges from pathological depression (hypokinesis) to pathological excitation (hyperkinesis). Individuals who are temperamentally well-balanced incline in neither of these directions, and are termed *moderate*. In the development of the Whittier temperamental scale (not yet published) it has been found convenient and practicable to classify individuals into the following seven groups:

1. **Melancholic.** A state of extreme inactivity or depression. Persons with whom this mood prevails are usually unresponsive, mute, lachrymose, and given to worry. They are often weak and incapable. They feel life to be a burden, and often long for death as a relief. This is a definite pathological state, and usually results in a diagnosis of insanity.

2. **Phlegmatic.** A state of unusual depression and inactivity, but not sufficiently marked to be adjudged pathological. Phlegmatic persons may be found in any of the common walks of life and may be

either successful or unsuccessful in their careers. They are quiet, reserved, serious, and sometimes given to pessimism. They are apt to be identified with the lower social levels because of their lack of ambition to advance. They frequently lack courage. Phlegmatic children are problematic in school, because of the difficulty encountered by the teachers in eliciting response. The intelligence of such a child may be easily underestimated unless psychological tests are used.

3. *Calm*. A state of partial inhibition, in which the individual is inclined to be unusually quiet, composed, and appears to be exercising an unnecessary degree of self-restraint. Reacts slowly, tends to be a follower rather than an initiator.

4. *Moderate*. Possessor is uniformly cheerful without being boisterous. Is sensible, well-balanced, *en rapport* socially. Works and plays moderately, laughs quietly, does not weep easily, feels little drive, and is always responsive and cooperative.

5. *Active*. Persons with whom this state prevails are alert, wide-awake and energetic. They initiate new movements, take chances on uncertainties, and are usually progressive. Although their nervous system responds quickly, they do not exhibit the usual symptoms of nervousness. They are likely to be leaders, at least to the extent their intelligence will permit.

6. *Excitable*. These persons are extremely active, but are weak in the control of their activities, frequently becoming nervous or excited. They tend to exhibit a violent temper, and to be restless, talkative, jolly and enthusiastic. They are sometimes braggarts, conceited, profane, or brutal.

7. *Choleric*. This represents the pathological state of excitation in which the inhibitory control is so weak as to render the individual dangerously insane. It is expressed in destructiveness, exultation, homicidal acts, irritability and psycho-motor pressure. Such persons are erratic and fanatical and usually come to the attention of the lunacy authorities. Their condition is easily observed, and calls for special supervision or custodial treatment.

The foregoing groups do not indicate temperamental "types" and are not intended to be sharply defined. They represent, descriptively, some of the stages in temperamental variability. Our experience indicates that most persons can be classified roughly in this grouping.

Care should be taken to limit the descriptions and classifications to the *prevailing state*, and to avoid undue emphasis on temperamental reactions of short duration. Probably most persons at times exhibit all of the non-pathological states.

The personal history should include, under this heading, an accurate and carefully prepared description of the individual from the standpoint of temperament, with classification, as nearly as possible,

according to the foregoing conception of temperamental variability. The description should take into consideration all obtainable facts which indicate his most common mood. It should include:

1. *Present temperamental status*, according to the observations and judgments of competent persons, including wherever possible, the opinion of the individual himself.
2. *General disposition*, i. e. happy, sad, cheerful, etc., with detailed description.
3. *Developmental history*, including the prevailing temperamental status at different age periods, and under different conditions, associations, etc.

Important sources. Parents; teachers; supervisors (in institutions); psychologists; personal interviews.

IV. Other mental conditions.

Meaning. This heading includes mental conditions which are not strictly intellectual and which are not ordinarily fully disclosed by the intelligence examination. It includes irregularities of mental development either favorable or unfavorable to the individual. Mental disorders arrange themselves into two fundamental categories, characterized respectively by *insufficiency* and *pervision* of the intellectual or moral processes. Mental disease or psychoses are affections in which mental symptoms constitute a prominent feature. They differ from such mental infirmities as idiocy, moral insanity and many states of dementia, in that they are expressions of active pathological processes and not of permanent and fixed alterations of the mind—(de Fursac and Rosanoff). The description should include:

1. *Examination results*, ordinarily presented in order of date, except where some especially value diagnosis is available, in which event it should be given first.
2. *Developmental facts*, including incidents which would show regular or irregular mental development from birth to the present time.
3. *Observations, statements, opinions and judgments* of persons who have been in a position to observe the individual's behavior and development. Include also daily or weekly observations and reports of internes, nurses, special reports by psychologists, etc.
4. *Influences.* Give any outside or other influence which alleviates or detracts from the usual mental condition.
5. *Illustrative material.* Samples of the subject's conversation or letter writing which would indicate a tendency toward aberration.

Important sources. Psychiatrists; physicians; neighbors; school teachers; parents; employers; friends; associates; institution records; personal interviews.

V. Physical condition.

Meaning. This topic refers to the various factors which indicate or may have affected the individual's physical status or general health, from his pre-natal period to the time at which the history is prepared. The report should include:

1. *Personal description*, including general appearance, posture, gait, complexion, color of hair and eyes, facial expression, motor habits, energy, stigmata, abnormalities of appearance, marks, scars, etc.
2. *Medical examination results.* Detailed reports of examinations by physicians, including specific findings, concerning the more important phases of physical development and health. The physician's description and diagnosis should be given in as much detail as practicable.
3. *Special examinations*, of teeth, eyes, ears, nose and throat, nervous system, etc. Include results of any laboratory tests.
4. *Physical measurements*, of height, weight, vision, hearing, grip, lung capacity, cutaneous sense, etc., in which results can be expressed in numerical or exact terms, and comparisons made with established norms.
5. *Developmental history*, including pre-natal care, birth, infant and childhood growth, nutrition, accidents, diseases, etc.

Important sources. Physicians; hospital and dispensary records; institution examinations; teachers; relatives; personal interviews.

VI. Moral character.

Meaning. In discussing this aspect of individuals it should be borne in mind that moral character is, chiefly, that phase of the individual's make-up which produces in varying degrees adaptation and conformity to social custom. This social aspect would involve an account of the individual with regard to honesty, trustworthiness, sense of responsibility, respect for the rights of others, sex relations, altruism, courage, perseverance, ideals, fair play and sportsmanship, cooperation, obedience, etc. In addition, moral character has what we might term a personal aspect whose influence on adaptation to social custom is less direct. This includes such traits as refinement in thought, speech and habit, self-respect, self-knowledge, regard for the future, care of personal appearance, personal sex habits, etc., and their opposites. Throughout note should be made of the

amount of will-power present in the individual. This will be more easily detected perhaps, in the amount of voluntary restraint exercised over natural or other impulses and in the amount of initiative displayed. The report should include:

1. *Present status.* Classify the moral character of the individual as accurately as possible, preferably in terms of standardized moral character scales, based on judgments of competent observers.
2. *Physical habits,* including use of, or abstinence from alcohol, drugs, tobacco, or any physical indulgences.
3. *Religious affiliation.* This is important to know, but care should be taken in interpreting its exact influence.
4. *Developmental facts.* Trace the moral make-up through the developmental period, noting the age and other conditions associated with the characteristics noted.
5. *Influencing factors.* Note to what extent the moral tendencies are associated with inherited characteristics and to what extent acquired or modified through personal attitude and environmental conditions.

Important sources. Psychologists; teachers; relatives; probation officers; court records; personal interviews; observations.

VII. Conduct.

Meaning. Social behavior including both favorable and unfavorable reactions. Especially valuable are facts which reveal the conditions under which the individual's best conduct is obtained. Care should be taken lest the report be merely an account of misbehavior. At the same time there should be no omission of significant items in misconduct and the conditions associated with offenses. Should include:

1. *Developmental facts.* An account of the individual's general social behavior by age or growth periods (infancy, childhood, youth, maturity) including favorable and unfavorable reactions.
2. *Legal status.* In case of offenders or delinquents, give chronological account of misconduct, following Whittier classification.

Important sources. Parents; relatives; personal interviews; official and institution records; principals; probation officers.

VIII. Associates.

Meaning. Associates are persons with whom one comes in contact at home, in school, at work, on the street, in church, etc., and those with whom leisure time is spent. The associations may have arisen

through accidental circumstances, or may be due to desired cultivation. It is generally conceded that character and development are closely related to associates. Care should be taken to avoid *a priori* conclusions as to the influence of companions, but it is important to know all of the obtainable facts, including:

1. *General attitude* of the individual toward companions. State whether inclined (a) to be solitary, (b) to associate with a single companion, or (c) to have many companions.
2. *Description*, names and sex of companions.
3. *Activities* of the individual in association with these persons.
4. *Places* at which these activities occurred, and the conditions which encouraged them.
5. *Voluntary or involuntary nature* of these associations.
6. *Leadership*. State whether the individual is a leader or a follower in his companionship, and to what extent.
7. *Developmental facts*. Describe association conditions at different ages, noting significant changes.

Important sources. Relatives; teachers; friends; court records; supervisors; attendants.

IX. Amusements.

Meaning. Includes all forms of activity which constitute relaxation or diversion for the individual concerned. The aim should be to get at the method which the individual has taken, either voluntarily or otherwise, to spend his leisure time. The description should include data on the following:

1. *Recreation*. Interest in outings, camping, fishing, hunting, etc.
2. *Travel*, where interest in the main incentive.
3. *Games and sports*. Enumerate chief interests, and ability displayed.
4. *Reading*. Kind and extent, with chief interests.
5. *Public entertainment*. Extent of interest in social or public functions, including theatres, dances, etc. Indicate quality of choice.
6. *Exercise of talent*. Time spent as result of special interest or ability; as art, music, mechanics, etc.

Important sources. Personal interviews; relatives; probation officers; teachers; observations.

X. Education.

Meaning. Achievements in knowledge or training whether arrived at formally or informally. The report should lend itself to a diagnosis of the subject's present educational status, and the inferences as to the training he ought to pursue.

1. *Measurements.* Results of standardized educational tests.
2. *Schooling.* Give a chronological account of school attendance, nothing achievement, by age and grade periods, with notations on success, regularity, application, special interests and dislikes, special abilities and disabilities. Give dates of important promotions or changes, graduations, degrees, distinctions, etc.
3. *Experiences.* Here record informal education, obtained as a result of experience outside of school.

Important sources. Educational tests; teachers and principals; school records; personal interviews.

XI. Vocational record.

Meaning. This item refers to vocational experiences and aptitudes. Details should be given concerning the specific work performed, as well as the general occupational classification. The object of this study is to furnish a practical basis for giving vocational guidance.

1. *Measurements.* Results of tests of vocational or mechanical ability, ordinarily presented in order of date, except when some especially valuable diagnosis is available, in which event it should be given first. Diagnosis of vocational advisors may be reported here. Status on occupational scale.
2. *Developmental facts.* Data relative to training or experience, apprenticeship, promotion, occupations engaged in, vocational preference, regularity and term of employment, wages. Membership in industrial or professional organizations.
3. *Observations.* Statements by employers and acquaintances. Analysis of mental, physical, educational and social factors including summary of favorable and unfavorable vocational qualifications, general aptitudes, with indications of vocational future.

Important sources. Personal interviews; employers; teachers; trade instructors.

XII. Home conditions.

Meaning. An account of the social status of the home, with special reference to the factors related to the subject's social develop-

ment and adaptation. Follow the plan of the Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions, the principal items of which are:

1. *Necessities*: the status of the home with reference to the ordinary needs of life; income, food, and clothing; shelter, etc.
2. *Neatness*: the order and taste in which the home is arranged; also its condition from the standpoint of sanitation and health.
3. *Size*: *relative* size, with reference to the number of persons living in the home.
4. *Parental conditions*: the important facts concerning the parents, the extent to which they are living together, and the degree of harmony which usually prevails.
5. *Parental supervision*: the extent to which the parents (or guardians) exercise their jurisdiction over the physical, mental and moral welfare of the children; the quality and fairness of this control.

The home index. After the data for all items are recorded each item is accorded a grade on a scale of 5 points, according to its agreement in *quality*, not in specific detail, with the graded samples of actual homes on the *Standard Score Sheet*, the use of which is necessary to uniform grading. The sum of the item-grades constitutes the *Home Index*.

Important sources. Visit to the home; relatives; personal interviews; neighbors; social agencies.

XIII. Neighborhood conditions.

Meaning. An account of the social status of the neighborhood with special reference to the factors related to the subject's social development and adaptation. Follow the plan of the Whittier Scale for Grading Neighborhood Conditions, the principal items of which are:

1. *Neatness, sanitation, improvements*: the status of the neighborhood with reference to general appearance, cleanliness, sanitary equipment, and modern improvements.
2. *Recreational facilities*: the extent to which provision is made for recreation in the homes and neighborhoods.
3. *Institutions and establishments*: the kind and value of educational, industrial, and social institutions in the neighborhood, with special reference to their probable moral effect on the community.
4. *Social status of residents*: educational, vocational, and moral conditions, including standards of living.
5. *Average quality of homes*: an estimate of the probable range of home indices, as compared with that of the prepositus, according to Whittier Scale for Grading Home Conditions.

The neighborhood index. After the data for all items are recorded, each item is accorded a grade on a scale of 5 points, according to its agreement in *quality*, not in specific detail, with the graded samples of actual neighborhoods on the *Standard Score Sheet*, the use of which is necessary to uniform grading. The sum of the item-grades constitutes the *Neighborhood Index*.

Important sources. Visit to the neighborhood; relatives; personal interviews; neighbors; social agencies.

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Note: The complete manual will contain a list of source references for each topic. It has seemed advisable to omit them in this presentation. Following are some selected titles which cover the different phases of social investigation, and which contain valuable suggestions for the practical worker.

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NEW PERIODICALS

Three new publications have come to the editor's desk. All of them indicate a growing interest in the fundamental problems related to better human conduct. We are glad to welcome them.

Studies in Mental Inefficiency is a new quarterly (?) issued by the Central Association for the Care of the Mentally Defective, of London. It is apparently to have the editorial supervision of Dr. G. E. Shuttleworth and Dr. A. F. Tredgold. In the initial issue, dated January 15, 1920, Dr. Shuttleworth presents an editorial foreword setting forth the aims and purposes of the Association. Dr. Tredgold contributes a paper on "Moral Defectives." An article by Lucy Fildes discusses "Individual Studies, their Educational Significance." This journal should be an excellent stimulus toward advanced legislation. The publication office is Queen Anne's Chambers, Tothill Street, Westminster, S. W. The subscription is three shillings per year.

The *Mental Hygiene Bulletin* is the new official publication of the Canadian Committee for Mental Hygiene. It is in the nature of an information bulletin, setting forth data relative to that efficient organization. Among the recent accomplishments of the Committee

are surveys of the provinces of Manitoba and British Columbia, the establishment of psychiatric clinics in Ontario and Quebec, the treatment of disabled soldiers, work in connection with immigration and education authorities, the establishment of a library, and the organization of a bureau of statistics. The official scientific publication of the Society is the *Canadian Journal of Mental Hygiene*, published quarterly at \$2.00 per year. The address is 9 College Street, Toronto.

The *California Institution Quarterly*, the initial number being dated March 1920, is published by Whittier State School under the editorship of Karl M. Cowdery, assistant superintendent. It is the official organ of the California State School Conference, which meets four times each year at different institutions, including state industrial schools, state schools for feeble-minded, state hospitals, and state school for the blind. The first issue gives an abstract of proceedings for the last quarterly meeting, and contains news items concerning institutional progress in California. The quarterly is sent free to interested persons. (J. H. W.)

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Cabot, Richard C. *Social Work. Essays on the Meeting-ground of Doctor and Social Worker.* Houghton Mifflin Company, N.Y., 1919. pp. 188.

Designed to meet the needs of social workers, this volume is assured of an important place as a text and reference book particularly in the field of medical social service. Following a brief introduction concerning the historical development of social assistance in medical work, Dr. Cabot groups the essays in two parts. —Medical-Social Diagnosis and Social Treatment. In the first part he refers to the training, ability, and equipment which should be had by the "social assistant" of a physician and the various economic, mental, social, and industrial investigations that should be made. Interspersed throughout each chapter are numerous timely suggestions and illustrations concerning points that should be observed and concerning patients' attitudes. The section regarding Social Treatment contains a chapter on samples of social therapeutics and one on the motive of social work. The writer's insistence on the observance of scientific methods and individual diagnosis and treatment, together with his understanding of the interrelations of social problems, has earned a careful consideration for his presentations in the field of medico-social service. (W. W. C.)

Chicago Crime Commission. *Concerning Crime in Chicago.* A stenographic report of the First Annual Meeting. Bulletin No. 10. Jan. 19, 1920. pp. 20.

This bulletin contains the by-laws of the Chicago Crime Commission organized by the Chicago Association of Commerce for the purpose of promoting the efficiency and activities of officers and departments charged with the duty of the suppression, prevention and punishment of crime. It includes the reports of the

operating director and the various committees which indicate the activities of the commission. (W. W. C.)

Colcord, Joanna C. *Broken Homes. A Study of Family Desertion and its Social Treatment.* Russell Sage Foundation, N. Y., 1919. pp. 208.

This study is one of Social Work Series edited by Miss Mary E. Richmond, author of *Social Diagnosis*. The series plans to consider the individual social maladjustments in small, practical volumes each written by a specialist in social case treatment. Miss Colcord presents such a study concerning family desertion. It is essentially practical and constructive, suggestive of the efficient methods which may be used in social investigation and treatment by trained and experienced workers. The principal chapter following an introduction are: Why do men desert their families; Changes of emphasis in treatment; Finding the deserting husband; Further items in the investigation; The details of treatment; The home-staying non-supporter; Next steps in corrective treatment; Next steps in preventive treatment. With the increase in the number of such valuable studies and the growth of the body of literature on the subject we may confidently expect the more general recognition of social work as one of the professions. (W. W. C.)

Henry, Mary Bess. *Santa Ana's Problem in Americanisation.* Santa Ana Public Schools, Department of Research, Bulletin No. 2. Santa Ana, California, Feb. 1920. pp. 24.

A brief but significant study of one of the most perplexing educational and social problems of Southern California. The "Americanization" problem of Santa Ana, as in many other cities and towns of this region, is exclusively one of dealing with Mexican residents. This study, prompted by the difficulties incident to the education of the three hundred Mexican children in the Santa Ana Schools, includes an inquiry into home conditions, temperament, occupation, intelligence and school progress.

The home conditions were found to be poor. The application of the Whittier Scale for grading home conditions, with the assistance of the research staff of Whittier State School, revealed deplorable facts concerning the methods of living. In some cases families of ten persons live in two-room shacks. The average "home index" was found to be 9 points, which compared with the average of 17 points for the home of delinquent boys, suggests extreme social hazard.

Temperamentally, according to Miss Henry, the Mexicans are "a very emotional people when they are together, but usually stolid and phlegmatic as the proverbial Indian when they are with people of other races." They are fond of music, and in this quality may lie some suggestions for their education.

Most of the Mexican men are engaged in ordinary labor, which brings from two to six dollars per day during employment. They seldom enter the skilled trades or professions.

Intellectually the Mexican children are consistently inferior to American children. Abbreviated Binet tests of 70 children showed an I. Q. range of .43 to 1.05, with a median of .72. This implies that average Mexican intelligence is comparable to that of high grade moron or borderline cases among Americans. This is not due, evidently, to the language factor, but appears to be real native inferiority. The results of the tests are substantiated by school status, economic and social progress, and other factors. The reviewer recently re-

ported similar conclusions with reference to delinquent Mexican boys. Miss Henry finds that about one-third of the children brought before the juvenile court in Santa Ana are Mexicans.

The outlook is dubious, at least so far as present methods are concerned. Special classes or special schools, with assignments and courses of study based on psychological tests, are among the most promising suggestions. The same laws in regard to morality, Miss Henry thinks, should apply to aliens and citizens.

Superintendent Cranston and the people of Santa Ana are to be congratulated upon their efforts toward solving this problem. (J. H. W.)

Haberman, J. Victor. *Memory (The Mnemologic Phenomena) in Relation to Intelligence, Pedagogics and Psychopathy.* Reprint from Medical Record, May 1919, pp. 42.

The question is raised whether in order to measure memory it is necessary to test severally each of the memory phenomena, attention, infixing, association, retention and recall. From the pedagogical standpoint the question is answered by a discussion of the different learning and ideation types. The conclusion is drawn that tests both of immediate and deferred recall should be used, with the preference if there be any, on the side of the deferred memory tests (conspicuous by their absence in the Binet series and the Yerkes method.) From the psychopathic standpoint the discussion concerns the mnemologic variations accompanying abnormal conditions. Here tests used by different experimenters for determining power of retention and reproduction are described and the differences between the performances of normal and pathological subjects brought out. The article concludes with a brief description of the author's arrangement of tests for the probing of the several memory functions. (J. M.)

Hull, Clark L. and Bertha I. *Parallel Learning Curves of an Infant in Vocabulary and in Voluntary Control of the Bladder.* Reprint from Pedagogical Seminary, Sept. 1919. pp. 272-283.

The subject of this experiment was a healthy normal female infant. Training was begun during the 8th month and careful records were kept from the 11th to the 32nd (lunar) months. The resulting curve is like that of the usual learning curve for skill and for the simpler mental processes. Its most striking characteristic is a long plateau beginning at the 18th and continuing through the 27th four-week period. This is most plausibly accounted for by the coincidence of the early stages of talking with the beginning of this plateau. The curve for acquisition of vocabulary is in striking contrast to the first. It begins slowly and increases at a progressively more rapid rate as far as investigated. It is more like the type of curve found in analytical learning such as Ruger found with puzzles and the author with evolution of concepts. No real words were spoken until the end of the 17th month. At the end of 2 years there were 129. The vocabulary for the 28th month, comprising 500 words, is given. (J. M.)

Moll, J. M. *The Feeble-minded.* Johannesburg, South Africa. pp. 18.

From a far corner of the earth comes this reprint of the address of Dr. Moll before the Child Welfare Conference at Durbar. It reports the work that is being done in this field in South Africa. The findings with reference to percentages of feeble-minded among institution children are strikingly similar to

the findings of American investigators. Dr. Moll's percentages are as follows:

Langlaate Orphanage.....	6 per cent.
Paarl Girls' Industrial School.....	12 per cent.
Heidelberg, Emmasdale.....	7 per cent.
Standerton Industrial School for Girls.....	12 per cent.

The investigations in reformatories revealed as high as 25 per cent feeble-minded. Dr. Moll recommends fuller surveys of institutions and the establishment of psychopathic clinics in connection with the juvenile courts throughout the Union. (J. M.)

Preston, Josephine Corliss. *Vocational School Laws of Washington*. Published by the State of Washington, Dept. of Education. Olympia, 1919. pp. 13.

A compilation of the laws enacted at the 1919 session of the legislature. One act deals with the establishment of the machinery for the promotion of vocational education and one with the establishment of part-time schools and the defining of conditions under which attendance therein shall be compulsory. Minors in districts where part-time schools are maintained must attend school until the age of 18 unless they are high school graduates or are in a part-time school and are complying with all acts regulating the employment of such minors or unless they have been excused from school in accordance with certain other provisions of this act. Penalties are provided for employers, parents or guardians who violate these laws and it is made the duty of the regular public school attendance officer to see that they are enforced. (J. M.)

Pintner, Rudolf. *Community of Ideas*. Reprinted from *Psychological Review*, XXV-5, Sept. 1918. pp. 402-410.

An experiment "to demonstrate the existance of a high degree of likeness in the association of ideas of individuals when placed under like conditions and to measure the degree of this likeness in a number of instances." Three classes of observers took part—(1) university students, (2) school children aged 13 and above, (3) school children aged 12 and below. Twenty stimulus words were used, color, furniture, flowers, letter of the alphabet, metal, etc. Subjects were asked to respond to each word with a particular word of the class to which the stimulus word belongs. The striking points in the results seem to be (1) the narrow range of variability in the responses, (2) the great similarity between children and adults and (3) the stability of the frequency of the percentages. *Furniture* called forth *chair* in 80 per cent of adults, in 70 per cent of children 13 and over and in 66 per cent of younger children. By using the percentages attached to each word as the score for that word, 70 papers were scored on the first 10 words for the degree of "community" shown by each. The highest possible score would be 536 if the most common response were given for each of the 10 words. Of the 70 papers thus scored the highest was 478. The median for adults was 407, for 13-year olds 400, for 7-year olds 174. (J. M.)

Toops, H. A. and Pintner, R. *Educational Differences among Tradesmen*. Reprint from *Journal of Applied Psychology*, III-1, March 1919. pp. 33-49.

An inquiry into the relationship between the amount of a man's education and the kind of position that he holds, based on reports from 924 tradesmen belonging to 30 different trades. The medians for the three classes show journeymen to be

less well educated than either apprentices or experts. The journeymen group includes, of course, those who will later become experts but also many who are "doomed to be journeymen all their days." Only 14.9 per cent of journeymen have more than an elementary education while 27.8 per cent of experts have at least some high school education. A boy's chances if he leaves school before the 7th grade are greater for remaining a journeyman. After the 7th grade his chances for becoming an expert gradually increase until for the college graduate they are 4 to 1. The men reported upon were trained mainly in the shops. This takes longer than should be necessary for the average man. A saving of two or three years time could be made by giving school shop instruction during apprenticeship. (J. M.)

Toops, H. A. and Pintner, R. *Mentality and School Progress*. Reprint from *Journal of Educational Psychology*, X-5, 6, May-June, 1919. pp. 253-262.

An answer in terms of Yule's association coefficient Q to the question "Are there any conditions under which school grade may be taken as a reliable index of mentality?" A careful study of three schools, one of superior, one of medium, and one of inferior social status, 1723 children in all, brings out some interesting relations. Four grades or more retarded is a perfect indication of a mentality not higher than normal with possibilities in favor of at least backward mentality. Two or more grades advanced is a perfect indication of at least normal mentality with chances in favor of at least a bright diagnosis. The low indices are the result of the tendency of schools to retard normal or mentally advanced children. The question is raised whether it is better to increase the standard of the school so it will select the better endowed children or to keep it low enough to graduate the largest possible number of pupils. (J. M.)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Mobilizing the Community against Juvenile Delinquency. The work of War Camp Community Service has suggested the desirability of some organized effort in dealing with a community's delinquency problem and the value of coordination of effort of the civic and social resources to the end that there might be greater efficiency and less overlapping of organizations. The Prison Association of New York sought to formulate some simple, workable, cooperative plan for the reduction of juvenile delinquency by local community effort, as near the source of the trouble as possible. Certain axioms are given as the basis of effort. Delinquency is a local community problem and as such has to be combatted by the resources of the community. Large stress must be placed upon recreational, self-improvement and social service activities for the young. Although the community will need to develop its own leadership, it must be assisted by outside help and council. A sixteen page leaflet has been published by the Association listing one hundred questions which may be taken up by any local group as the basis of a home-conducted study of their problem in this field.—*Orlando F. Lewis*. *Survey*, XLIII-21, Mar. 20, 1920. pp. 765-767. (W. W. C.)

The Juvenile Court of the Future. This article summarizes the past and present methods of handling the delinquent juvenile in order that the discussion concerning future policies may be made more clearly. Two divergent views are

offered as plans for future Juvenile Courts. The first of these contemplates the abolition of the Juvenile Court and the substitution of a Department of Adjustment in connection with the city or county school system. To this Department shall be referred all children who seem "to present problems of health, of mental development, of behavior, or of social adjustment." The services of physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, field investigators, recreational specialists, etc. will be required in order to meet the needs of this department. The second view emphasizes the importances of the Juvenile Court and recommends that a new institution entitled the Family Courts be organized which will include former Juvenile Courts and Domestic Relation Courts. The Family Courts will be divided into departments each of which shall handle one phase of the troubles of the home. In this way all problems of the child and home will be correlated and equal care will be given to cases of divorce, abandonment, bastardy, juvenile delinquency, etc. The same specialists will be needed as in the Department of Adjustment. The second plan excels the first in that, by retaining the work in the legal field instead of placing it in the educational field, it is possible to handle all home problems in one place and thus secure true adjustment of them. The writer suggests a combination of these two plans; the Department of Adjustment to be maintained by the schools in an effort to prevent delinquency and the Family Courts to handle the more serious juvenile problems which the schools were unable to prevent.—*Charles Hoge Ricks*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 43-44. (E. K. B.)

Defective Delinquents: Prevention and Provision. The problem of the defective delinquent has come to be regarded from the economic as well as from the humane standpoint. The day of considering every defective as "potentially delinquent" is passed. Now the problem of the defective has become a problem of behavior and brought in its train the slogan "catch them young." The first point of contact with the defective is the ungraded class. Hand in hand with the ungraded class and its previous mental examination of the backward school child should go to the mental clinic and adequate field supervision which will do much to prevent the development of delinquency. The provision for the defective delinquent entails the institutions specifically maintained for the care of this group of social misfits. Thus prevention means education along appropriate lines followed by adequate supervision and provision means the separate institution.—*Ethel Anderson Prince*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 26-27. (E. K. B.)

The New Jersey Continuation School Law. The continuation school law going into effect July 1, 1920, requires each school district in which 20 or more minors between ages 14 and 16, are legally employed to establish a continuation school. The purpose is to provide a practical type of education for boys and girls who have left the elementary schools and gone to work, by carrying forward and conserving the elementary education already received, with final aim of making good citizens and efficient workers to man the industries of the state. In the larger cities this work should be in its own building with its own corps of teachers, conducted during working hours largely on the basis of individual instruction. Subjects will be academic, shop, home economic, drawing and commercial work. \$400 per annum for full time services of each approved teacher for a period of 36 weeks will be allowed by the state, with an allowance from federal funds of one-half the salary of a director.—*Extracts from letter of Commissioner of Education to Boards of Education in New Jersey*. *School and Society*, XI-267, Feb. 7, 1920. pp. 177-178. (K. M. C.)

The Protection of Children under New Swiss Penal Code. This article deals briefly with the Swiss Penal code recently federalized and made to apply to all cantons alike. The new code penalizes the physical ill-treatment and the neglect or morally cruel abuse of a child under 16 years of age. White slavery is also dealt with. The law divides juveniles into three groups: (1) children under 14 years of age; (2) children between 14 and 18 years of age; (3) children from 18 to 20 years of age. The child under 14 years of age is not amenable to the penal law. The other two groups are handled quite separately. Noteworthy among the provisions of the code are the institutions for juveniles—the reform school and the reformatory. The former deals with cases less “morally depraved” than the latter which is maintained for juveniles guilty of a very bad crime.—*Alfred Silbernagle*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 48-49. (E. K. B.)

Shall the Age Jurisdiction of Juvenile Courts be Increased? An examination of physiological, psychological and social aspects of adolescence indicates that youths of 16 and 17 are still juvenile and should be dealt with as such. The desirable age demarcation with respect to any particular subject matter should be decided, not on the ground of precedent or analogy, but on the basis of the nature of the acts, the capacities of the children, and their relationship to society. While the circumstances vary with each individual instance, on the whole the cases presented by boys and girls 16 and 17 can be dealt with in the juvenile courts, provided the necessary equipment and machinery are available. However certain administrative problems are involved including the fact that it is a statewide problem, resources and equipment of juvenile courts would have to be increased, temporary detention homes provided for segregation, added probation facilities made, and greater institutional accommodations provided. While the change is theoretically desirable there are practical difficulties involved and the most urgent need is the establishment of a statewide system of county or district courts, be they juvenile or family courts, where juvenile cases, whatever the age limit may be, can be handled.—*Arthur W. Towne*. *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, X-4, Feb. 1920. pp. 493-516. (W. W. C.)

Probation—A Federal Need. The criminal courts under the supervision of the U. S. Department of Justice have no power to suspend sentence or to use probation. A convicted person must be either fined or committed to a federal prison under law, no matter how young or amenable to reformation. A widely approved bill has been introduced into Congress providing for probation officers with whom the federal courts may place offenders on probation in all cases except those punishable by life imprisonment or death. Adult as well as juvenile probation laws are in force in all but fourteen states; the federal government should no longer lag behind in supplying this humane and rational system.—*Charles L. Chute*. *Survey*, XLIII-21, Mar. 20, 1920. p. 775. (W. W. C.)

Special Disabilities that Contribute to Retardation in School Status. School retardation is caused by special disabilities as well as by general mental deficiency. These disabilities include the inability to master reading, spelling and arithmetic as taught in the ordinary way. Children whose retardation is due to such disabilities are of normal intelligence. An instance is given of a child with an I. Q. of 1.26 whose school retardation was very serious owing to her apparent inability to learn to communicate intelligently by written language. Other instances are cited

which emphasize the need for the study and understanding of these mentally normal children who are otherwise lost to education by reason of special disabilities. —*Leta S. Hollingworth*. Ungraded, V-3, Dec. 1919. pp. 49-54. (E. K. B.)

Mental Hygiene Lessons of the War. The experience of France and England in the early part of the war showed the necessity for a separate organization in the Medical Corps to deal with neuro-psychiatric problems. Accordingly, when we entered the war, pressure was brought to bear by civilians with the result that Dr. Thomas W. Salmon became the head of this new work. With the exception of the regular army units and some of the National Guard units, the entire American Expeditionary Forces were examined. Some 68,000 men were rejected for organic nervous disease, insanity, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, or as being possessed of a definite neuropathic predisposition. As the result of this elimination there existed a low rate of suicide and crime among the A. E. F. There were altogether 120 suicides in France and 1,731 prisoners. On the basis of the experience of the army of 1915 the rate should have been 1,120 suicides and 240,000 prisoners. That the low figures of the A. E. F. are due to the mental health of the army is undoubtedly true. The care of the insane in the army showed marked progress, despite the relative unpreparedness of the medical profession as a whole along neuro-psychiatric lines. The division neuro-psychiatrist diagnosed the prodromal stages of mental disease, and because of the early treatment, returned approximately 65 per cent to duty. It was estimated that the number of soldiers brought to the advance field hospitals with a history of nervous disorders, ranged from 3 to 12 per cent of the total casualties. This work, originally forced into the army by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, is now being carried on in the form of army plans for the "care of mental disease and the special psychiatric training of its medical officers as would have seemed preposterous two years ago."—*John T. MacCurdy*. *State Hospital Quarterly*, V-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 205-220. (E. K. B.)

After-care Study of the Patients Discharged from Waverley For a Period of Twenty-Five Years. This survey was made by means of a circular letter to friends and relatives of discharged patients, followed by a visit to the family, the pastor, local officials, the police, etc. The data thus obtained were checked up in each case. Of the 1537 discharges during this twenty-five year period 646 were studied, the remainder having been transferred to other institutions, to other states, or could not be located. Of the 646, 470 were males and 176 were females. For the most part, those who did not succeed were cases whose discharge the School had strongly opposed. Of the 470 males, 197 have died or have given trouble, the remaining 273 living successfully with or without supervision. Of the 176 females, 86 have died or been admitted to other institutions; of the 90 at liberty, 52 are giving no trouble. Further analysis of success or failure is made with reference to marital condition, occupation, home conditions, etc. Some interesting data concerning the influence of "definite character objects" upon the success of the feeble-minded individual are given.—*Walter E. Fernald*. Ungraded, V-2, Nov. 1919. pp. 25-31 (E. K. B.)

Plan for the Organization of a State System of Social Service. A paper read before the Department of Public Welfare in Illinois, September 29, 1919. A plan

for a state system of social service is offered. The district plan is favored over the institution plan. The former provides for the division of the state into districts based upon geographical and transportation factors. Each district is headed by a district superintendent who supervises and directs the work of the field-workers under him. Working in conjunction with these field-workers are the intramural workers of the various institutions. These latter workers reside at the institutions and use the district workers as informants during the residence of the patient or offender, forwarding to the district workers all this data upon the release of the patient or offender to that district. The plan makes possible greater economy and, more important, closer follow-up work. There is the additional favorable feature of the absolute disassociation for the patient or offender of the institution and life as it is again taken up outside. Furthermore, the field-worker, who thus acts as parole officer, knows her district, is thoroughly familiar with the industrial situation and so better able to place her charge. In addition, her localized effort will undoubtedly produce results in education and prevention.—*Harriet Gage*. The Institution Quarterly of Illinois, X-4, Dec. 31, 1919. pp. 5-10. (E. K. B.)

School Records as an Indication of Mental Subnormality. Several school reports whose content correspond closely with reports by psychologists suggested the use of routine school records as evidence of the subnormality of pupils. A scheme for rating deportment, proficiency, effort, regularity in attendance and relation of age to grade gave a numerical index of the substance of the school reports. Of 50 graded thus 2 rated below zero who, on further investigation, prove to be feeble-minded. A revision of the rating scheme gives a total possible score of 100 points from which on account of degrees of effort deductions would be made as follows: 5 for B, 10 for C, 15 for D; a total of 30 to be deducted under "proficiency"; 15 under "deportment"; under "times absent or late", deduct 5 points per absence or tardiness up to two times, 10 points for more than two. Deduct 10 points for each year of over age for grade, add 10 for each year under age. This plan gives special weight to proficiency while a total rating below 70 would call attention to the need for special consideration without being in itself diagnostic.—*Theron C. Stearns*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 98-96. (K. M. C.)

The Economics of Child Welfare. The point of contact between economics and child welfare lies largely in the standard of living. A study of incomes has revealed a very close relationship between an increase of the family and a change in expenditure. Every item of expenditure except food declines not merely in percentage but in absolute amounts with each addition to the family. This change in the character of expenditure necessarily changes the standard of living in those families where the income is insufficient to cover all needs and desires. Thus each addition to the family may mean a decrease in the money spent for clothes, for health, for educational advantages, for recreation, etc. The need for greater study along this line is thus indicated.—*Royal Meeker*. California State Board of Health Monthly Bulletin, XV-7, Jan. 1920. pp. 221-224. (E. K. B.)

Who Is The Retarded Child? The use of the word retardation as meaning over-ageness is subject to criticism; altho to the scientific worker it means simply the relation of the chronological age of the pupil to the ages of other pupils in the same school grade, to most people it implies that the child should progress at a certain rate determined by the curriculum, one grade per year, and is retarded if

he does not do so. The term was first used in 1905 coupled with a definition and the adjective pedagogical which made the meaning clear. "Overageness" would be an improvement altho not perfectly accurate. "Retardation" should be used to compare the progress of a person or object at one time with its own progress at another time, not with the progress of others. Proper educational use of the term in referring to the individual child would be to compare his actual progress with his potential progress. On this basis the normal and bright children would be found to be the retarded pupils. It is the duty of the teacher to see that each child progresses at his maximum pace. Real retardation should be measured in terms not of chronological age but of mental age. Since learning and education are psychological processes individual differences must be recognized by means of educational and mental tests; school administrators must study and where possible remove causes of hindrance and give the proper kind of work to fit the individual need.—*Arthur J. Jones. School and Society*, XI-270, Feb. 28, 1920. pp. 241-246. (K. M. C.)

Value of Psychological Testing in the Public Schools. A clinic with a staff of psychologists, physicians and social workers, to investigate and handle the misfits in the school system prove their practical value by making possible the segregation of the feeble-minded, handling the retarded but restorable cases, adjusting the work of individuals with specific mental or physical defects, advising treatment for disciplinary cases, discovering and pushing forward the supernormal child, and assisting all with true vocational guidance. To cover all this demands adequate staff and sufficient up-to-date equipment.—*Educational Administration and Supervision*, V-10, Dec. 1919. pp. 509-511. (K. M. C.)

Educational Measurements and the Virginia School Survey. Carefully prepared standardized tests to measure achievement in reading, spelling, writing, composition, arithmetic and algebra were given to 16,000 Virginia children, white and colored in both urban and rural schools. In general, the results show in urban schools satisfactory reading, low grade handwriting, poor performances in all four fundamental arithmetical operations. In all subjects the work of the rural one-room schools is decidedly inferior. Causes of poor work include irregular attendance, short terms, lack of well-trained teachers, too many one-room schools, no uniform standards, inadequate classification, lack of special classes for unusual children, and inadequate supervision. To make possible broader use of standard procedure in testing and classification the Department of Education of the University of Virginia has established a Bureau of Tests and Measurements. Educational tests will be used to set up definite standards with recognized objectives for the various grades, as well as to measure teaching and supervisory efficiency. Intelligence tests make possible the segregation of those who need to be in special classes either for faster or slower progress.—*Educational Administration and Supervision*, V-10, Dec. 1919. pp. 498-501. (K. M. C.)

Trainability of Defectives Classification Sheet. Too often tests at entrance are not satisfactory as an index of the eligibility of applicants for the particular type of care and training offered by schools. The Training School has devised a scale for rating the trainability of their applicants basing judgments on information rather than test data. One urgent need emphasized in the selective process is for the provision of institutions for near-delinquents or the socially mal-

adjusted group—"a half way house between the reform school and the institution for the feeble-minded." The classification sheet calls for 5-point ratings on age, self-help, abilities (industrial, educational and mental), nervous condition, habits and temperament, and physical condition.—*S. D. Porteus*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-10, Feb. 1920. pp. 180-184. (K. M. C.)

A Standardized Information Record. In place of the generally used information blanks of many institutions with large numbers of questions and uncertain usefulness, the Vineland Department of Research submits an attempt at a systematized selective record form with the purposes that (1) information for scientific inquiry and that for the institution's immediate use be separated; (2) all be in one folder organized for statistical summation and graphical presentation where possible; (3) scales of development be used with the folder, and (4) the contents include records of physical, psychological, educational and industrial development and the medical, personal and family history of the individual. Page 1 is for summarized information indicating various capacities, with a psychogram. Page 4 shows details of the laboratory examinations. Page 2 contains scaled ratings of school, industrial and character capacities. The industrial scale is both of the relative standing of the various occupations and of the steps within the occupations. Page 3 is an attempt to systematize the records of family history and the medical examination of the child, points being deducted from a total possible score on account of various defective conditions reported. Analysis of the information thus recorded proved that 80 per cent of that obtained by other methods is included and that the other 20 per cent is largely irrelevant.—*S. D. Porteus*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 103-111. (K. M. C.)

"Scattering" in the Binet-Simon Tests. Amount of scatter is one of the quantitative and qualitative differences in reactions between normal and feeble-minded children to the Binet-Simon scale which constitute important aids in the diagnosis of borderline cases. In general, mental defectives scatter more than normals. Method of proof is the determination of what percentage of cases in any chronological or mental age group of subjects pass any one, two, three, four, or five tests at each Binet-Simon mental year. For this work a restandardization and rating according both to mental years and to difficulty was made on selected normal children with I. Q. range .90-1.10, 15 to 20 at each age. Median scatterings for mental ages 5 to 10 were computed for both normal and feeble-minded cases. The greater scattering of the feeble-minded found arises from the fact that the standard order of difficulty of the tests for normal children is not the order of difficulty for mental defectives. Qualitatively and speaking broadly the tests which put a premium on memory processes or experience are easy for defectives while those which involve new adaptations or abstract judgments are characteristically hard. A brief scale for rapid examination has been standardized which emphasizes differences between normals and feeble-minded.—*E. A. Doll*. Training School Bulletin, XVI-6, Oct. 1919. pp. 96-103. (K. M. C.)

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ROSALIND'S DIARY

A STUDY IN TEMPERAMENT OF A SOCIAL MISFIT

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The case of Rosalind came to our attention in 1914 when, as a last resort, it was decided to send her to the Minnesota School for Feeble-minded. The series of events which culminated in her arrest and commitment to the care of the institution together with the bare outlines of her family history illuminated somewhat the startling paradoxes of the diary, which covers a period of only a few stormy months in her demimonde career.

Rosalind was the second born in a fraternity of five—four sisters and one brother. The oldest sister, now married, is reported to have been "somewhat wayward" before marriage. The sister next younger than Rosalind was very stubborn as a child and much harder to control than Rosalind; was "very wayward and immoral" and not as bright as Rosalind. She became pregnant by a "man much younger than herself"—went to a maternity hospital in Minneapolis where her child "died young." The sister is now studying to be a trained nurse. The younger sister is a very bright girl and a good student. The brother, the youngest of the fraternity, is also very bright.

The father was for many years postmaster in the small town where they lived. He owned and published a weekly paper but succeeded in making only a meagre living. He is a man of little force and has always been a moderate drinker.

The mother died at the age of thirty-seven of tuberculosis. She was a woman of average intelligence, described as being slovenly in appearance. She was the only girl in a family of eleven, her brothers are all successful business men, well thought of in the community. As a girl she was very hard to control and is reported to have been incorrigible in her girlhood. She was fond of going to

rough dances where she met very inferior men—would stay away from home for days at a time with such men. But after her marriage she seemed to behave.

Rosalind was graduated from the high school of the small town which was her home at the age of sixteen, having finished the course in three years. Her mother had died when Rosalind was eleven years old, and she and her older sister kept house for a rather pusillanimous father subject to no supervision until a stepmother came into the home. The stepmother, a superior woman, failed in her efforts to curb the wild habits which Rosalind had acquired and, when not allowed to run the streets, Rosalind left home without parental consent at the age of eighteen.

Her devious path is hard to follow from that time until she appeared in the city which was the scene of the beginning of our acquaintance. We have only her own story of her course which is usually so highly colored that it is impossible to discriminate fact from fiction except where we have been able to verify it by referring to the places and persons mentioned. An unsuccessful attempt to study nursing was her first venture. The sisters at the hospital where she went "could do nothing with her", and she was dismissed after four months' trial. We hear of her again at a state hospital for the insane where her attempt to study nursing terminated again in her dismissal after a few months. The escapade which culminated in her discharge was her first real moral delinquency and I use "moral" now, in reference to sexual morality only. She was "seduced", she says, "by an old friend of father's, a traveling salesman." She spent several days with this man at a hotel in a neighboring city and was dismissed from the hospital on her return.

From this time on she lead a very precarious sort of existence. She was employed in various places but never held a job more than a few months at most. There is a record of her being a patient at the M....city hospital where she attempted suicide by taking bichloride of mercury. No motive for such a procedure has been deduced. Her own accounts of her life are so imaginary that it is quite impossible to follow her. She tells of being a laboratory assistant to a prominent nerve specialist in his work at the University of..... Dr.....refutes the statement. However it was accomplished, she made the acquaintance of medical students at the university with which intimacies the diary deals.

The immediate train of circumstances leading to her arrest and

final commitment to the institution follows. She went to the finest hotel in the city and told a story, convincing in the manner of telling, that her father was a Federal inspector of military posts; that she herself had been a medical student at a university in California, but while performing some laboratory experiments, had been the victim of lead poisoning, and had had to come East in search of health, journeying thither with her father in an automobile. On account of the cold weather which had overtaken them, she had decided to make the rest of the trip by train and had left her father in Dakota to come on with the car. Her father would arrive in a few days. She remained at the hotel four days and ran up a bill of eighty dollars. Telegrams to her father and others purporting to be from him saying that he was delayed, evidently allayed any possible suspicion. She entertained university men students lavishly while at the hotel. On the fifth day she went out and did not return and the matter was put into the hands of the police.

After leaving the hotel, she went to a home for working girls and told them the same story in such an impressive manner that she was allowed to stay over Sunday without the usual references required of the girls, and on Monday her departure was coincident with the disappearance of a gold watch and chain and several other small articles of jewelry.

Rosalind made no effort to conceal her whereabouts and was shortly arrested. She admitted the hotel escapade and having stolen and pawned the jewelry. At her trial a woman interested in social problems, as she said, "recognized the girl as defective" and promised to be responsible for her. That responsibility proved too arduous and after some months of trial, she was committed to the care of the institution.

Her examination at the institution showed no physical defects or abnormalities except that before the removal of adenoids as a child, mouth-breathing had become habitual and the tendency still persisted in adult life. Her appearance was very unprepossessing, she was slovenly, rather heavy set, short and awkward—but how she could talk! Her Stanford-Binet intelligence quotient was 1.15. She passed the tests rapidly and accurately, with very little effort passed four of the superior adult tests and had a vocabulary better than the "superior adult" requirement.

She remained at the institution as an inmate two and a half years. During that time she ran away once but was unable to make a living

and was arrested in Chicago. She told again a romantic tale but returned voluntarily with the officer who was sent from the institution to get her.

The diary is self explanatory. It should be stated that she was never a prostitute in the sense of ever having received money for her delinquencies. It seemed to be rather a hectic craving for experience, for what, in another way of life Walter Pater sought—"the passage and dissolution of impressions, images, sensations..... that continual vanishing away, that strange perpetual weaving and unweaving of ourselves." Only, being Rosalind, she chose the nearest and perhaps the only available way for her. So:

"She set herself, high-thoughted, how to dress
The misery in fit magnificence."

(The diary begins, apparently, during an attempt to reform.)

March 13, 19—

I suppose I might start this diary out as something of an entirely new era. Anyhow I am a new, new girl! The Old Campus Riot is taking a rest—and "faith, she needs it." Today called up the (fraternity house) driven by sheer loneliness—and J.... told me that the Chink had gone to the hospital with diphtheria, and that the house was quarantined. I also wrote a cross little note to Hal—I care for him so, that it is relief even to scold him. I talked to Madge of him tonight—but my heart got so full that I could hardly speak, and I just lay my head on her shoulder and sobbed. Hal! Hal—I am so unhappy. I hope this diary isn't going to degenerate into an anguished wail for my boy. I won't have it so—I won't, but I do hope God will take care of him for me. My new friend Mr. T.... brought this book to me—and I am very grateful to him. Everything has its compensations, you know, and he is mine. Madge's Jack is quite struck by my "cleverness" and the Greeks are my humble slaves. I am not happy—I never expect to be again. But the world is kind—Good night.

March 14, 19—

Today start in at G.....'s (city department store) and how I mean to make good. Wish me luck—all you people who have cared for me—and I shall need your prayers as well as your good wishes.

(The next entry, addressed to Sancho, was torn out with the evident intention of posting it.)

March 14, 19—

Dear old Sancho: Last season one of the big New York successes was a play called "Officer 666." It closes with the heroine telling the hero, "One hardly would think such things could happen except in a play!" And the hero answers, "It couldn't." But things are sometimes strange—tho true, Yes? No? Tho I didn't start this letter as a commentary on the oddities of life in general.

I want to talk sense if I can. How is Hal? How has his last year

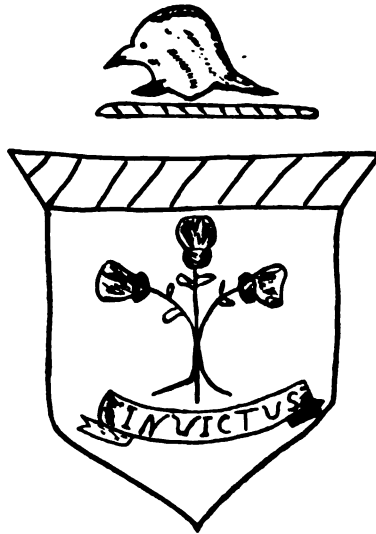


Fig. 1.*

"Invictus"

"It matters not how high the gate,
How hedged with punishment the goal,
I am the Captain of My Fate!
I am the Master of My Soul!"

in college panned out? Is he hurt? You—I am trying to write sensibly—but I cannot seem to make it. I do hate myself today. I'm glad to be out of it all. It was cheap and common. Two or three cocktails—sufficient intoxication to overlook some glaring defects—a little obscenity disguised as wit—and an adjournment to the chapter

*The designs are reproduced from Rosalind's original drawings in the diary.
Fig. 1. Frontispiece.

house! How you must respect yourself when you recall how tragic you could get over a *love*—God save us!—impelled, by the mere presence of one—anyone would do—of the “female of the species” and two absinthe frappe’s. You and I are a most nauseating pair—we even make ourselves sick! And yet I am honestly afraid I still love you. Do let’s be careful and never make such fools of ourselves again!

Bob.

March 19—

A ship passed the harbor at night
While the quiet boats were sleeping—
And turned to the open sea—as if on a far course keeping—
A song came back with the wind, over the waters winging.
A song with a burden sweet—as of sailors afar off singing!
“Break, break from thy moorings of sin and despair,
Thou in the harbor sleeping!
Peace that is there is the peace of the dead
Death with the years comes creeping!
Hail! Thou that sleepest!—Awake!—
Cast off thy moorings and swing to the breeze!
Sail with thy God the wide open seas!

Storms thou shalt meet that shall temper thy soul—
Ever thy heart’s strength trying!
But far at the end is the gleam of the goal,
And glories well worth the dying!
Hail! Thou that sleepest—Awake!—
Swing free thy anchor—dip to the breeze!
Sail with thy God on the open seas!”

A ship reached the harbor at night, where the quiet boats were resting—
Returned from the open sea—the star-linked billows breasting.
A song came over the sea—over the wild waves winging
A song with a burden sad—and sweet—as of sailors afar off singing!

I’m afraid this doesn’t all express the idea. It’s my best, however. Do you get it, dear? Or shall I ever know!

(But work in the department store “went finely” only for a day. And the next entry dated only a few days later is written from a cell in the county jail whither Rosalind had been sent pending the decision of the court in regard to her theft of the watch and the settlement of the eighty dollar hotel bill which the daughter of the Federal inspector had contracted while waiting for her imaginary father.)

March 26, 19—

Dearest dear— A fellow like myself is fortunate in having any friends at all—that they are mere “fairweather” friends hurts—but it’s not their fault, you see. I myself am just full of a newer ideal—the pal that sticks through thick and thin and to quote the hack-



Fig. 2.

neyed joke—“there aint no such animal.” In other days I would stake my life on the fidelity of Perc—or Hal—or you. But experience proves that when a voice is heard in Ramah—Rachel usually mourns alone. I am not complaining of this, dear my soul—only commenting on the fact that does more than anything else to make earth the hell that it is. Today Madge K.... debonnaire and sweet—looked into my cell for a few minutes. Mrs. B.... was with her. I cried. I used to be the clever one of the class of 1911. Now—I just wish to

be dead—that's all, just finally, quietly dead. And there will be nothing of happiness for me until I am. "Dust unto dust—and under dust to lie, sans wine—sans song, sans singer and sans end!"

Mystical Mother of all—on whose broad bosom I am resting—
Hear Thou my broken heart's plea; hear Thou my weary soul's call—
Hard, my bark wrecked by despair, the pitiless billows I'm breasting
Grant me a little aid—O—Mystical Mother of all.

Over thy face is a veil of green sea mist,
Only thine eyes shine like stars—bless or blight me,
I will cling fast to the leash on thy wrist. O! Aphrodite!
Carest thou not that thy child hath drunk deep of the chalice of sorrow,
Is thy heart withered too, with an unresting onslaught of pain,
O! Mystical Mother of all—help me to that bright Tomorrow
Wherein souls—"weary still" unto death, may by Thee, be strengthened again.

Thou in the East, and I here in the West
Under our newer skies, purple and splendid
Wilt Thou not call the sad spirit to rest—
By peace attended?

Mystical Mother of all—a broken down spirit is calling—
Calling to Thee from the mazes of sin-stained and desolate years,
O! let Thy mercies descend, like the petals of roses soft falling,
Into a broken vase—Comfort me—dry my sad tears—

March 27, 19—

Dearest girl—It has come to me here all alone—that perhaps it is better as it is—perhaps all things should be as they are. This is not accounting for the hours of heartache we endure—it is merely trying to see the best in this thing which has come upon us. If I were only sure—but I'm not, and I never can be. For I'm going to be afraid all my life long. Life is hard sometimes.

My home people are so dear to me—Dad and you especially. But I can never go back to you—never. There are our kiddies to consider, you know. I am trying to be optimistic—but I'm just breaking all in pieces—and I do so want you all. Last night the woman in the cell next to mine woke up late,—and started to laugh. She is very bad and she has a lot of little children—but she laughed and cursed a long time. "God is no good," she said over and over again. I'm not so sure she was not right. Dear—you don't half understand—no one does. The long days and hours of fear and then the blankness—and now the unceasing dread of the future. For I

will never dare to trust my responsibility again. I have been insane—doctors who knew me have said it—I do not believe it. How can I know—how will I ever know anything again? I think these things and I almost rave. And only God knows how I wish to be dead.

April—, 19—

My dearest—Have just finished a letter from Dot, which asked



Fig. 3.

Maude Adams in (inside?) Chanteclér.

of you and goes on—"or don't you see him any more? Somehow, little sister, I hope you don't, for he's not good enough for our clever little Bob." etc.—more on the same strain. I read it and then read over an old, old letter from you—"Your're clever and sweet and dear as they make 'em—but you 're not straight. If you 're in earnest about caring for me as God knows I do for you,—you can make me very happy—if you 're not, for God's sake be spert enough to say so—and give me a chance to forget. For I love you—and when I see the utter hopelessness of it all—I'm just a kid again, and I put my head down on the table and cry." Hal, darling, I don't see how I

could hurt you so. I never meant to kill your love for me, I prized it so and do yet—that life is just one long agony of loneliness. A hopeless loneliness, too—for you'll never come back. Be a little lenient, dearest of men—for I, too, have suffered. And I want, as I never wanted anything before, to be:

Your friend,
Rosalind.



Fig. 4.

April 6, 19—

I thot a long time, dear—about the psychology of this thing—and it doesn't seem to have an answer. I had friends by the dozen once—but now I'm alone. Perhaps I'm built that way—that it's my nature to meet all crises alone. I can't tell this. All I know now is that I'm bitterly unhappy.

I think of you, my Dot—when you first found it all out. How your loyal heart must have ached for me. And I know you wanted to try almost anything first.

Dear little sister of my thankful heart—I can't tell you what you have been to me. You and Dad and my boy are the Trinity I have

enshrined in my Holy of Holies. And the temple is unworthy, I'll always keep you clear in my heart's sanctuary—for I love you—you all with the best and noblest love I am capable of—and I want you every hour of the day and night. When I think how I have lost you



Fig. 5.

My Left Hand.

P. S. (My Right hand looks a lot like it—but I had to draw my left—for I never do what's right.)

all—I wonder at the pain that the Children of Men must sometimes bear.

(The attempt to place Rosalind in a home, under supervision, having failed, she was placed in Dr. James' Sanatarium. There follows another series of entries in the diary.)

April—19—

Am at Dr. James' Sanatarium for N. M's and well—I can't write. Dad was here and he took me to see Dr. James *to have my ears treated*. And he never looked at my ears at all. Not that it makes any difference. But this is the last jab Fate can hand me. Nothing matters now—absolutely nothing. Hal could help a little—and I do hope he'll do it. But if he doesn't care to I'll not mind.

God—if there is such a Being—I wish You would see your way



Fig. 6.

clear to helping me to help myself a little. "Not for myself alone"—but I do wish you would be a little kinder to Hal. Don't let him become like me, 'cause he can do some good somewhere—if he tries! I am so utterly useless.

Hopeless longing. I am at the end—I can endure no more.

Dear Lad— The enclosure is that design you wanted—really an appropriate idea for the L.... coat of arms—as the family is exemplified by the very attractive scion of the house, I know. Of course, Hal, I am not criticizing—it ill becomes the pot to comment on the exceeding blackness of the kettle! It is too silly of me to have lost your address—but I shall have the orderly look it up for me.

How are things at the frat? Trust the Chink has been restored to you. A dear chap that same and I know you missed him. This is clever (?) sarcasm. Was so sorry to hear of your late misfortune. Of course, I understand that all such investigations are always accidental—but with your “prophylactic technique” I am surprised! I’m not so sure the bottle on the crest should not be labeled “Argyrol.” But now I’m mean. I’m actually sorry, boy, and it was sportsmanlike of you to tell me.

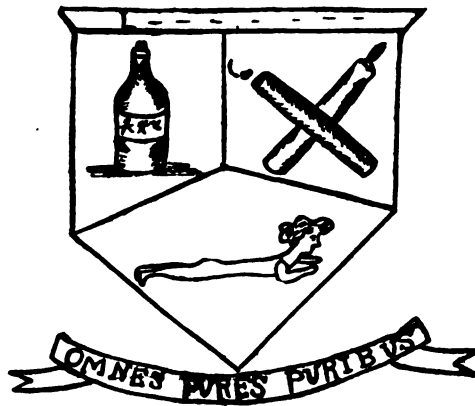


Fig. 7

Field—gules
 Quarters—three
 Devise—
 Flask rampant
 Cigs.—argent
 Girl—couchant
 Motto— To the Pure, etc.
 (Coat of Arms drawn for Hal—)

Really, Hal, Perc has been most kind. Look him up at the frat house and two such good fellows ought to know each other. He doesn't draw a home check—I tell you this to avoid a possible bad play—but you'll find him a man worth while.

You'll write soon to make sure of finding me—will you not? And do be careful dear boy, you know how that sort of thing pans out in the end. And you're too worth while to waste—that way. That little prayer I gave you is worth remembering—try it sometime. My love to you.

Rosalind.

The dear—Back to the pencil again—and you'll laugh when I tell you why. Sunday night, I took the bars off my window—unscrewed the bolts with a nail file. It was easy—they were on very loosely. Then I leaned way out and the screen came unfastened. Truly boy—misfortune pursues me. Down to the enticing bosom of Mother Earth, that screen has to drop, one corner of it making a dent in the head nurse's window en route. Up comes old K.... making war medicine to beat the cars, and madly intent on getting



Fig. 8.

X. Object of interest.

another paleface scalp. I was standing near the open window, laughing at my fool luck, and the "Child of the Open Air" immediately gets the impression that I intend following the screen. Inflamed with a praiseworthy desire to do her duty at any cost she rings the bell violently for help, and comes at me like a Carlisle tackle at a practice dummy. Totally unprepared, I went down like a log, while K....'s war whoop rang out triumphantly. Soon my room was packed with anxious subalterns, who soon had me trussed up like a partridge, and strapped safely to a bed—screwed to the floor—in a room marked "Violent"—over which a sign forbids nurses to brave the fury of the caged madman alone. Some hero or heroine conceived the brilliant idea of emptying my ink—on a table near the window—impartially over the melee. It was a brilliant

strategic move, and added much to the warlike aspect of the fair K..... And, too, it is a satisfaction to know that even in the crisis of such a perturbed comedy—these little decorative touches are not



Fig. 9

Splendid specimen of the genus Homo—Class—Peanutus Tinhornus. Common on the Campus.

This can vote!

Formerly claimed to be fatal to the female species, having a serious effect upon the heart. This, however, has been disproved.

forgotten. I have the interne under my thumb, so he brought me my book and tablet. He made a remark about "complying with rules" etc. I said, "What?"—Just that one word, but he shriveled. He has a wholesome respect for his job—so usually leaves the "bawling out" process to someone else. But he needn't worry—I won't tell on him—I guess he has the ordinary "medic stewed" amount of susceptibility, anyway. And I sure do say a lot of bitterly mean things to him.

I can just see the hats of the people who pass here, from my bed. If I were Arnold Bennett, I would write a brilliant bunch of epigrams about hats. But I'm not Arnold Bennett. I am just a worn out "loidy" with sore ankles. And no one in their senses—would expect anything brilliant or epigrammatic from:

Dr. James' Prize Bug,
Rosalind.

Dear old man:—So sorry to hear of the accident to your right hand. Cheer up it's sure to be O. K. and you'll beat old man Lister at surgery yet. What?? No accident!!! Then why haven't you written me??? (Business of freezing looks,—cut direct—etc.) You ought to tho—Perc—just live up to your reputation as a knight—"sans puer et sans reproche." I am actually beastly lonely. You have my love—distribute the edges to the "masculine Mary-Annes"—but keep all you want for yourself. And that, I fancy, won't impoverish

Rosalind

Dr. James' Prize Nut.

April 18, 19—

If all the stars that gleam above,
Could tell their tales of mortal love—
The love they feel for us below—
O then you'd know— then you'd know!

Or if the moon her limpid beams
More kindly on true lovers beams.
She'd tell my secret—soft and low
And then you'd know—then you'd know.

But star and moon are silent still—
They cannot tell the love I feel—
And my heart still in silence glows—
But still you know—you know.

Good Friday

I have just sent you a letter, dearest of men. I hope you will overlook its childishness of expression—and see the depth and sincerity of the appeal in it. I read a story once for you, Hal—about a small boy and a Pierrot, at a circus. I cried about it and its memory—once we took a small boy to a circus. There were other things—do you remember?

A long time ago Christ was crucified today. Crucified today body and soul—for all the love He bore to Mankind. And it was the ingratitude—the hate men had for Him—who loved them all—which caused Him His bitterest pain. Still He forgave them, and prayed for them—and bore the cross for them—because they in their ignorance, did not comprehend the love which had brought Him to suffer on earth, for them. They could not grasp this miracle of self sacrifice—their hearts could not feel such a depth of affection—and He prayed for them—“Father, forgive them. They know not what they do!” “And on the third day He rose again.”



Fig. 10.

The Kind They All Fall For.

Thus, sometimes, our souls are crucified. And the deepest pain is ingratitude—love scorned—self sacrifice disdained. And men know not what they do! Yet, were the Jews not made desolate because of their sin? And shall men, who crucify their brethern—shall they go unpunished? Will not every tear shed for their cruelty be paid for with their heart's blood? “An eye for an eye”—and the bleeding hearts must be healed—and the battered souls be made beautiful again!

Christ “descended into hell”—and thus these souls drag out their lives in agony. But worse still is the lot of their persecutors—“they shall be withered like grass!” God pity them—and us. God pity all who are crucified—who descend into hell—and who have no hope of a future resurrection.

And on this Good Friday—when you died for us—hear thou my prayer, O wounded Christ! Teach me to forgive them—make me gentle—guard my boy, and let me die! I can do no more. “It is finished”—and I can endure no more. “Lord save me—I perish!” Amen.

(The following entry addressed to Hal had been torn out but, for lack of opportunity apparently, had never been sent.)



Fig. 11.

Masculine Mary Anne.

Dear, dear Hal— Such a dream as I had last night! I woke up cold with dread—for it was so real, that I can't forget it. I dreamed that you had flunked out—had been dropped even before the finals. O, boy I do hope you are working hard—at chem. in particular. You know how we believe in you—all of us—and I'm not an obstacle in your path, now.

A year ago at this time we were cramming together—down on the “Billboard Walk”—and those were happier times than I have had ever; before or since. We learned a lot, too—didn't we?

It was just a year ago, Hal—but see how different everything is. You care for me still—and I for you—but the bitter helplessness of

it all is making us miserable. We were almost too happy—doubtless, if we accept Poe's theory—that's why we are having our bitterness now.

But don't you care, dear my soul,—we can live on our memories,—did we never have a minute of happiness together again. Think of the poor people who have dragged through long, weary, wasted existences, without one single joyful memory to urge them on—or one single blissful hope of happiness to cheer their path. Dear, we must be satisfied—we have lived twenty-four hours in a day. Just remember that day—last April—when from 7 A.M. to 7 A.M. the next day—we owned the world. Then, too, we should be thankful to God for the remnant of good sense left us. Suppose we had been married that day. Think of the endless hell we would be enduring now. O! we have much to be grateful for. Of course we have our little rubs. My worst one is remorse. And never seeing you—hurts. But I know best.

No, I haven't seen Dr. W.... or Perc or good old N..... Neither have I seen Dr. W.... since that last time with you. D.... has been ill, and now for the love of Mique—let's drop that well worn subject. You know where I stand and I refuse to discuss it further.

Finally—yes, I love you,

Rosalind.

I read this over—in the twilight of a lovely day. That's when that tear fell on it. "O—memories that bless and burn—O, bitter loss—" And I kiss each bead, often dearest—but the cross is still too heavy—too hard to bear. I was told today not to "make myself conspicuous if I could help it." God help me, Hal—I can't bear this—I can't bear it. And the way ahead is worse—be strong for me, dearest and hold me close—for I can endure no more. Help me, Hal—even God has forsaken me.

(Here follow about thirty quatrains from the fourth edition of the *Rubaiyat* quoted, evidently from memory with indifferent accuracy. In the main, however, she has followed the text with remarkable fidelity for a memory reproduction, as:

Iram indeed, is gone with all his rose,
And Jamshyd's sev'n ringed cup where no one knows,
But still a ruby lingers in the wine,
And still a rose beside the water blows.
For—
But still a Ruby kindles in the Vine,
And many a Garden by the Water blows.)

Dear Dad—I wish we didn't beat around the bush so—I think we must be the most inconsistent pair at large. This, however, is my "platform" and I don't know of anything that can ever make me change it. I won't go back to L..... I am not going to merely wait until you send for me—for to say that I am out of patience with this idea of watchful waiting is putting it mildly, and I don't feel the need of any assistance outside of ourselves.

Do you know the assurance of almost any social worker, is absolutely amazing? Today a wierd little man, who really has a pretty kind heart under his impossible neckties—asked me if I was "happy." This seems to be a stock question for a social worker. Odd— isn't it—but then that's a fine chance to spill platitudes. To get back to Pa Van Loon—his real name is X....he was here last summer and he also appeared in N....to give his professional opinion—to the effect that I had "no control of my emotions" etc.—quite forgetting his own personal danger if this were true—the emotional nature of an Irishwoman at such a time—being a wild desire to scratch his eyes out. But he knew—Oh yes—he knew, he had "had me under observation"—he had spoken to me twice—but an experienced social worker can tell by the set of your eyes, whether or not your grandfather fought in the civil war.

It is the memory of the time I have spent here—because of a few old ladies, who didn't have enough legitimate business of their own to attend to—and who are still not wise enough to know the difference between interest and interference—I don't much care whether I go home or not. For, though I do remember and realize the trouble and shame I have brought you—and shall be sorry for it as long as I live—it seems that even ordinary friends would want to know what a school or sanatorium was like, before they committed another friend to it.

It is the idea that you left all this to mere strangers, whose fad for she next week was probably Pekinese dogs—and who never cared tince to write me a single word—after breaking my life in littlepieces—what I did before I was feeble-minded—all this as unconcernedly as if I were a hat they were buying.

It isn't as much the misery of the past, as it is the uncertainty of the future, that bothers me now. And if I seem a little haughty, dear, please remember, that my little home is the one ideal—the one hope of happiness I have left. It seems such a lot to me that I don't care to try it until "every hill has been brought low—every way made straight."

With much love,

Rosalind.

April—19—

I am going out soon for a walk—they tell me—but God only knows where it will end. How I hope and pray that this *walk* won't add to my pain—or to Dad's. Did I tell you Lucretia was dead? Poor Dad, what a lot he must have to bear. And I am going to F---- (institution for the feeble-minded) and I'm trying to be as happy about it as I can, though I do really hate the idea. I can't see why God doesn't let me die—I am so miserable. I'm such a burden to the rest. O, do let me die—or make life easier for me. I can endure no more.

I feel like the man who, being told of his wife's death—the loss of his home by fire—the foreclosure on the mortgage on his farm—and his own approaching demise as a result of a railroad accident; could think of nothing to say except "Well, this is too ridiculous."

Methinks this wine that I have loved so long,
Hath done my credit in the world great wrong,
Hath drowned mine honor in a shallow cup,
And sold my reputation for a song!

Old Omar Khayam,
Wise old Tentmaker.

With all its cheapness and its literary faults, with all its overdone sentimentality, the diary remains a document of profound psychological and literary interest. Her keenness of insight into the situations she describes, her self analysis and rather whimsical philosophy of life are added to a native facility of expression to narrate a highly colored mode of emotional response to situations only in part imagined. Though she is emotionally excitable, easily aroused to activity of feeling, she has no illusions about these emotional values. Her "I can endure no more" is swiftly followed by a caricature or characterization of the emotion which indicates a sense of its exact valuation. Sanguine, she might properly be called in the old classical terminology of Wundt. Her responses to emotional stimuli are characteristically quick and weak. But there is always a balancing sense of humor to offset the outburst of sentimentality. And why, then, could she never succeed in "managing herself and her affairs with" what the social workers with all their assurance, consider "ordinary prudence"?

Let us consider what she has done since she "was feeble-minded." She was discharged from the guardianship of the institution as an unfit subject for such an institution and was given work as a custo-

dial teacher where she was under the supervision of a directing teacher. Though she had been taught during her stay in the institution to do excellent hand work, she failed to teach the most elementary of it to the group of feeble-minded girls assigned to her. Her failure consisted in carelessness both in supervision and of judgment of results. If her pupils made net laundry bags, the knots slipped and the bags were useless; if they made sheets, the hems were not turned evenly and the threads were never securely tied and so it was with all she did as a teacher. While she was still teaching, she became pregnant by a young man who was employed as a transient day laborer in the town. She married this young man for convenience and has lived with him since. I say "for convenience" because she seemed to have very little emotional response for him and has much the stronger personality of the two. He is a baggage checker, now, in a city depot. Rosalind has cared for the child that was born to them and for the two or three rooms where they live. For two years her housekeeping and her little daughter have held her. The man is in no wise a person to stir her imagination or satisfy her craving for rhapsodical emotional heights. While the actual response of the class—"medic stewed"—over which she sentimentalizes was not all that she interprets it to be, yet here was an actual link with the reality which she craved, though to "burn always with a hard gem like flame" amounted to no more than the smoky flares of a very cheap candle.

Will she stay with him, true to him thus fulfilling the conventional success in life? Shall we pigeonhole our Rosalind under the caption "A Soul that Found Itself?" Perhaps there is enough of the Rosalind in us to admit:

"Our interest's on the dangerous edge of things.
The honest thief, the tender murderer,
The superstitious atheist, demirep
That loves and saves her soul in new French books—
We watch while these in equilibrium keep
The giddy line midway: one step aside,
They're classed and done with."

Rosalind has been variously diagnosed as a "defective delinquent," a "conative case of mental deficiency," a "control defective," a "moral imbecile," and just "feeble-minded." And all these words with which we clothe our ignorance make our assurance, "under our impossible neckties," none the less amazing, and Rosalind by the means no nearer "classed and done with."

THE TWENTY-FOUR HOUR SCHOOL

FRED. C. NELLES

Superintendent, Whittier State School

The case comes to court only when the other educational forces break down—when the school fails with the child; when the church fails; when the parents fail.—*Judge Cabot, Boston Juvenile Court.*

We ought not to have to wait until a child passes the delinquent line to give him a decent training.—*Judge Mack, Chicago Juvenile Court.*

While I recognize the fine influence exercised in elevating the standard of the spirit of self-discipline at Whittier, yet the stigma in the public mind is on all reformatories, and the child who has simply the misfortune of being poor ought to be permitted to have the benefit of state aid, without any aspersion on his character to hound him afterwards.—*Joseph Scott, attorney. Formerly member Los Angeles Board of Education.*

The foregoing quotations representative of what may now be considered the prevailing opinions of persons professionally interested in the welfare of children. Educators, physicians, psychologists, court officials and social workers in nearly all lines have been brought abruptly face to face with the necessity for a broader conception of our responsibilities toward the children who are drifting into our juvenile courts.

The history of provision for the wayward child takes us successively through the "House of Refuge," the reformatory, the industrial school, and the probation system. Each of these has contributed to progress, and no one could dispute the greater superiority of present methods over those of two generations ago, in which, as Dr. Snedden¹ tells us

.....no matter what they had been committed for, they received the same treatment and according as they were big and little, the same classification. So, into one of two great divisions the boy was herded with several hundred other boys, without respect to their power for good or bad, and without regard to their want of training.

When bed time came he was taken to a large cell hall, for decency's sake called a dormitory; in each hall were from 150 to 200 narrow cells, 5x8x6, tier on tier, with a single barred slit in one wall called a window and in the other a grated iron door fitted with a padlock or brake..... Behind the bars of his prison-cell the boy often gave way to his feelings in an agony of remorse and fear, and thus, amidst the shouted taunts of his companions he fell asleep.

1. American Juvenile Reform Schools. New York, 1907. p. 14.

When the reformatory came it meant progress, because it was a recognition that custodial children are entitled to be segregated from adults; the industrial school went a step farther, and made trade-training the basis of treatment; the probation system went still farther, and provided means for the wayward child to have "another chance" under court supervision, previous to his commitment to an institution. But all of these methods, it will be observed, makes it necessary *for the child to be wayward* before his case receives any recognition at all.

Even with the limitations of our present system there has been surprising success. Young men and women whose needs were not met by their homes nor by the public school, and who failed repeatedly on probation, have been made useful and efficient citizens through the 24-hour training of the state industrial schools. The success percentages range probably from 40 to 70 per cent. At Whittier State School during the last biennial period the department of research reported 72 per cent of the boys paroled during that period to be "doing well" or "doing fairly well". This indicates that they were successfully operating, although handicapped, and were at least keeping out of trouble and minding their own business. Such records are gratifying, in the light of the serious difficulties in the way of training these boys who come to us under commitment, and from every conceivable social, economic, and intellectual group. They come to us only after the home, the school, and the probation office have successfully passed them on as not responsive. The state may never pay its debt of gratitude to the good men and women who have faithfully labored to develop these cases of prolonged delinquency into productive citizenship.

But this sort of success is dependent, in a large measure, upon the neglect of the children in their pre-delinquent stages. Among all of the boys who have successfully responded to the Whittier plan, there is probably not a single one who would not have responded better to a similar opportunity provided in connection with the public schools, several years before his commitment. Moreover, nearly every one of these boys, as their histories now show, were evidently yielding to the conditions which caused their delinquency, when they were pupils in the public schools. These statements are based upon the recent findings of our department of research. Dr. Williams, in re-

porting a recent school survey by the research staff², sums up these findings as follows:

There are 700 boys and girls in the three industrial schools of California, and perhaps a thousand more in the custody of the local juvenile courts. Most of these children are commonly termed "delinquent" because of the undesirable trend of their misguided, or unguided, energies. These children attended the public schools, and their histories show that their condition was evident when they were regular school pupils. Their teachers recognized them as being "headed for the court," and in some instances special efforts were made to prevent the necessity for court procedure. The best that could be done, however, was to keep their cases out of court until delinquency had developed. The essential factor in the treatment—continuous supervision—was unobtainable.

One need not search far into the opinions of modern educational authorities to find the prevailing conception of public education as the means through which every child, from every home, may receive effective training suited to his individual needs and the probabilities of his future development. Professor Cubberley³, in his discussion of new educational conceptions, reiterates his often-expressed view that the public schools should become the agency for the solution of most of our problems which are related to the development and training of children. Referring to the need for making public school provision for all educable children, he encourages

... the provision of such a large number of different types of school opportunities that somewhere in the school system every boy and girl may find the type of education suited to his or her peculiar needs. Where this cannot be done locally, due to the small size of the school system, it should be done by the county or state. Otherwise compulsory education laws will only force children into schools from which they will get little of value and in which they will often prove troublesome, with a resulting increase of over-age children, refractory cases, and corporal punishment, and at the same time defeat the social and citizenship aim of the schools. It may cost more to train such children properly than it does the so-called normal children, but it is cheaper for society in the long run that the schools should do it.

Added to such opinions are the equally emphatic beliefs of social workers that the problem of child development is fundamentally an educational problem, and that the elimination of the social evils which now confront the public can be effected only when the public schools are extended to include the child who is unable to respond to the present 5-hour school day. The state child-caring agencies are

2. Survey of Pupils in the Schools of Bakersfield, California. Whittier State School, Department of Research, Bulletin No. 9, June, 1920. p. 41.

3. Public Education in the United States. Boston, 1919. p. 382.

almost daily finding children who come in this class. School principals and teachers often wish for facilities of an educational character to bridge the gap between the schools and the juvenile court. That it is necessary to either neglect these children entirely or turn them over to the courts is an interesting commentary on the scope of our public school system.

From parents, also, come appeals for state aid in helping them prevent their children from the waywardness which often results from inadequate supervision. Some of these persons even ask to use the present state school for this purpose. A letter received from a mother reads in part as follows:

I am writing in regard to placing my two boys in the state home at Whittier. I wish full particulars in regard to training, education, etc. I am a widow left alone with three children, and cannot go out to work and leave them alone to roam the streets. It is impossible for me to pay the prices asked by private families or homes for boys, as I am now a poor working woman making small wages, barely enough for myself and baby to exist on. I wish to get my boys placed where they will get good care and training so I can manage to get steady work, and not have them out where they will go to the bad and in all kinds of company while I am at work during the day.

To letters of this kind the state can only reply that its institutions are exclusively for children *under court commitment*. There is no other legal provision. The state has thus far established no training for non-court children who are not adapted to their homes or to local public schools. A working mother who cannot provide for her children must surrender them to the wardship of the juvenile court if she wishes to avail herself of the combined vocational training and supervision opportunities offered by the state.

Such, in brief, is the urgent call for educational preventive work. It is evidently a problem for the state to solve, or at least to give serious consideration. The state has already established schools for the children committed by the courts. Logically, its next step should be the making of efficient citizens of those children for whom the necessity of court experience can be prevented.

Out of these and other considerations, and with the co-operation and assistance of several agencies, there has developed the proposed measure known as the 24-hour school act. Its purpose is to authorize the care and supervision of certain children under educational influences for the entire 24 hours of the day, and for such a time as will insure the most efficient training. This would mean room, board, clothing, and education. It would be a combined home

and school, both features being required to meet accepted standards. It would be a place open to children, but without court commitment. The child's or his parents' liberties would not be taken away, but parent and child would become initial parties to the transaction. There would be no stigma attached to this procedure, for it would not involve anything akin to punishment. It would not deal with actual delinquency, but would serve to prevent delinquency by affording the right opportunities in time. There would be no more act of charity involved than is involved in the offer of other forms of public education to children, or in the provision of free text-books. Commissioner Claxton of the U. S. Bureau of Education writes:

The establishing of this school in California will be another step toward the complete recognition of the economic, civic, and human need for adequate provision for training for industrial efficiency, civic righteousness, and virtuous human life, every unit of the population—for saving every fragment of society.

The measure which is being prepared for presentation to the next session of the California Legislature is intended to embody the principles suggested in the foregoing discussion, namely, that children are problems in education; that the public school system should extend to certain children who are not reached at present; and that the state should recognize the need for preventive work, and take the initial steps to this end. The measure also recognizes the advantages of bringing about this development with as little disturbance as possible of existing agencies and equipment, and at the same time making a distinct advance in the desired direction. The co-operation of all agencies will be necessary to a full realization of the ideal 24-hour school. The salient points in the bill are as follows:

Purpose. The school is intended to provide for the attendance, maintenance, care, parental supervision, guidance, observation, study, and education of pupils admitted, together with such vocational, home economic, mental, moral, physical, and other care and training as shall tend to strengthen, develop, and fit them to become good and useful citizens; to co-operate with child-placing agencies in finding proper homes where they will be assured of suitable educational opportunities; to stimulate the proper care of children by parents; and to serve as a training school for teachers of special classes and special schools, thus extending the activities of the normal schools and universities into the field of special education. It will also provide a working laboratory for the study of problems related to child welfare.

"It is declared that the intent and purpose of this act is education-

al and preventive, and is in no sense punitive, and it is to be so interpreted and construed."

Administration. Provision is made for a board of five trustees, including the governor and the state superintendent of public instruction, *ex-officio*, and three other members to be appointed by the governor. The terms of the appointed members will expire in different years, making the board a continuous body. The trustees serve without pay, except that expenses are allowed within a limited amount. It is planned that the board shall be a non-executive, policy-forming body, and that its chief function shall be the selection of a superintendent.

The management and supervision of the school is vested in the superintendent, who is authorized to employ officers, supervisors, instructors, teachers, and other employees, and fix their salaries, duties, and terms of employment. The superintendent shall appoint a treasurer who shall be responsible directly to him and under bond for the performance of his duties.

Teachers. All teachers and instructors, including industrial and vocational teachers, are required to meet standards set by the state board of education, and their salaries shall be subject to the approval of that board. All other employees are subject to the provisions of the state civil service. It is required that the salaries of teachers and instructors shall at least equal that paid in the city public school systems for work of equal importance. It is evident that the efficiency of such a school will depend largely upon the quality of the teaching force, and that only well-trained or especially adaptable teachers can meet the requirements.

All certificated teachers in the school are placed under the teacher's retirement salary fund created June 16, 1913, and will receive full credit for teaching experience.

Admission of pupils. Determination of eligibility for admission to the school is vested in a committee of three members; (1) the superintendent of the school, (2) a member selected by the superintendent and the trustees, and (3) a member selected by the superintendent and the department of education of the state university. The committee members receive no extra compensation except necessary expenses. It is the duty of this committee to inquire into the case of each pupil recommended or applying for admission, and it is authorized to make a thorough investigation into the merits of each case.

There is also provided for each county one or more local advisors, appointed by the superintendent of the 24-hour school and the state board of education. The advisors serve without compensation, and act in co-operation with the committee on eligibility in the selection of candidates for admission. The advisors may also serve as the connecting bond between the community and the school, and may obtain reports at any time concerning the status or progress of pupils registering from their respective communities.

Any minor child above the age of eight years, with the consent of the person entitled to his custody, or with his own consent if there is no parent or guardian, may be admitted to the school, upon the terms agreed upon between them and the school, provided; (1) that the pupil has no parent or guardian; or (2) that the parental care or guardianship is insufficient;* or (3) that it is demonstrated to the satisfaction of the eligibility committee that the pupil is in need of the special advantages of training and supervision which may be afforded by the school; or (4) that the pupil is not responding satisfactorily in the public schools. No feeble-minded, epileptic, or morally degenerate child can be admitted, nor can any child whose physical condition is such as to make him an undesirable pupil.

Any citizen, whether or not a relative, may file a petition with the committee on eligibility, showing that there is a child who comes within the provisions of the act, and requesting that the committee consider the advisability of admitting the child to the 24-hour school. Such petitions should contain a statement of the facts necessary to a thorough inquiry. After investigation, the committee may, if the necessary consent is obtained, recommend the pupil for admission.

Provision is also made whereby the child himself may make application for admission, upon stating his case to the committee on eligibility.

Co-operation of local schools. It is made the duty of every school principal to report to the city or county superintendent to whom he is responsible, on any pupil who, in his judgment, comes within the provisions of the 24-hour school act. The principal must present his report in writing, and in such detail that the superintendent may form an opinion as to the pupil's eligibility for admission.

*In case there is no parent or guardian, the court may name some one to act for the child. The consent of such person would then be secured for admission to the school. In such case no guardianship proceedings are necessary and the child does not become a ward of the court.

It becomes the duty of any city or county superintendent of schools to investigate, or have investigated, each case presented to him, and make appropriate recommendations to the committee on eligibility, either for or against the admission of each pupil whose name is submitted to him. The recommendation is expected to be accompanied by sufficient information concerning the social and educational status of the pupil for consideration by the committee. These provisions should serve as a basis for effective cooperation between the local public schools and the 24-hour school, and serve to emphasize the strictly educational nature of the act.

Attendance. After a pupil is admitted to the 24-hour school, whether through arrangements made by him or by his parents, he is subject to the regulations of the school in regard to his attendance. This will, of course, vary with different pupils. The intent of the act is to extend vocational training and supervision over a period of time sufficient to make the pupil socially and vocationally efficient. The school would probably have 1,- 2,- 3,- and 4- year courses. The act provides that leaving the school without permission constitutes truancy within the meaning of the compulsory attendance laws for the public schools.

Courses of instruction. The act requires that all courses of instruction be submitted to the state board of education for approval. It is intended that they shall be worked out with great care, and embody the best methods of vocational education and social guidance. The main divisions of the work would be (1) specific vocational training, (2) moral training, (3) physical development, and (4) regular public school instruction. In each of these respects the 24-hour school would have all of the opportunities afforded by the local public schools, with the additional advantages of **continuous supervision and scientific classification**. All instruction would be based upon evidences of the individual development of the pupils and upon the supplementary findings of the research staff.

Maintenance. The contract entered into by the parents and the state whereby a pupil is admitted to the 24-hour school, provides for maintenance payments to be made by the parents. In case there is no parent or guardian capable of meeting these payments, it is provided that they be met by the county from which the admission is recommended. These county payments are not to exceed the amount paid by counties toward the maintenance of juvenile court wards in state institutions.

The act requires that the parents or guardians shall not only make maintenance payments, if they are able to do so, but that they shall also endeavor to assist the pupil, maintain an active, helpful interest in his welfare, and make every reasonable effort toward finding him a suitable home or employment, in cooperation with the school. There is no release of parental obligation, except for the training itself.

Research. The 24-hour school will be an excellent laboratory for the study of problems relating to child welfare. The findings of this research laboratory would bear closely upon the work of all public schools and institutions. The fundamental causes of juvenile delinquency, which the 24-hour school would tend to prevent, could be studied nearer their source than is now possible. The investigations required by the committee on eligibility, using trained workers, would furnish abundant data for the analysis of the social, educational, and economic conditions which make some boys and girls fail to respond to the regular public school procedure. Many problems in vocational education in relation to intelligence and social factors could be studied under the most favorable conditions. The variability of the pupils attending the school would make it possible to experiment to great advantage in problems of individual instruction.

The training of teachers. As a practice laboratory for the training of special teachers and social workers, the field of the 24-hour school would be unexcelled. Here would be a selected group of pupils who are on the border zone of successful careers, but, under the ordinary conditions, in danger of slipping into social inefficiency. For teachers to be experienced in the guidance of these pupils might result in untold value in the lives of the other boys and girls with whom they would later become associated.

Prospective social workers could also find superior opportunities for practical training in the study of social problems in association with an experienced research staff.

Location of initial 24-hour school. Obviously, it will be necessary to begin by the establishment of an initial 24-hour school by the state. In accordance with the policy of putting the plan into effect with as little disturbance of existing institutions as possible, and at a minimum cost, it is proposed to utilize the present buildings and grounds owned by the state at Whittier. There are several reasons why this step is both desirable and feasible. It has been pointed out for several years that the plant at Whittier is not as well adapted as

formerly to the use for which it was originally intended. Although an industrial school has been maintained successfully on these grounds, the school has labored under serious handicaps incident to the rapid expansion of the population in the vicinity of Los Angeles. Originally an isolated farm tract, about two hour's drive from Los Angeles and a mile from the city of Whittier, it is now entirely enclosed by populous sections, is but twenty-five minutes from Los Angeles, and the city of Whittier extends to the very doors of the school. Running along the east boundary of the property is the paved state highway connecting Los Angeles and San Diego, one of the most extensively travelled automobile roads in California. Directly through the property runs a branch line of the Southern Pacific Railroad, dividing the grounds at a serious disadvantage to both effective working conditions and supervision. The Whittier line of the Pacific Electric Railway, running fifty cars a day, intersects the highway at this point, and has established a station at the front gate. Public bus lines run additional vehicles each day. The freight yards of the Southern Pacific and Salt Lake railways are within a block of the school, and three busy packing houses are just across the street. Two other packing houses, employing scores of young girls during the canning season are actually within the boundaries of the school property. It will be obvious to persons experienced in institution management that these conditions do not produce the best atmosphere for a state industrial school dealing exclusively with wards of the juvenile court.

On the other hand, some of these conditions are favorable to work of a strictly educational character. The proximity to centers of population will be desirable and advantageous. Isolation and segregation being no longer needed, the 24-hour school will welcome the social contact with other schools, and working relations with the growing industries of this region. The proximity to educational institutions in Los Angeles is desirable from the standpoint of the proposed teacher-training and research work. The opportunity for parents to keep in touch with the progress of their children will stimulate this important element. As a center for special educational work the site at Whittier offers splendid attractions.

The buildings on the Whittier property are especially adapted to 24-hour school purposes. Changes in the educational work of the state school during the past eight years, together with the change in the juvenile court law limiting admission to younger boys, have

called for buildings of a different character from those required for strictly reformatory or industrial school purposes. The plan of the school centers in a group of attractive cottages, suitable for small groups of normally responsive boys, and a group of spacious shops for trades-training. In fact, the whole trend has been to emphasize the equipment necessary for the education of the responsive boy, and the idea of the 24-hour preventive school has been an inspiration in planning and developing these buildings. That the state has consistently approved the plans is an indication of the receptive attitude toward preventive work which has been met in all branches of the state government.

The unsuitability of the Whittier site to industrial school purposes has been recognized officially in legislative acts. In 1913 legislation was enacted which limited commitments to Whittier State School to boys under sixteen years of age. This has assisted in bringing about an educational atmosphere without the stricter methods necessary for the retention of older boys. The Legislature in 1919 authorized the board of trustees to sell any portion of the state property at Whittier, with a view to using the funds toward the purchase of a rural tract for state school purposes. The intent of this act is the removal of the institution for juvenile court wards, so that the present Whittier site may be used for strictly educational work. The framers of this bill had in mind the advantages offered by the present site for the 24-hour school. The bill providing for the change was signed by Governor Stephens May 27, 1919.

Provision for additional schools. The desirability of 24-hour schools for certain boys and girls will probably become increasingly evident with the development of the initial school. In fact, several communities have already considered the matter, and will welcome the results of the experiment by the state. It is planned to make adequate provision for the establishment of local 24-hour schools, which may have the co-operation of the state and the benefit of the general organization which would thus be effected. The state 24-hour school could become the parent of these local schools, and eventually supply teachers and principals for them. Such an organization could render services of incalculable value to the state, through the more efficient guidance and education of the hundreds of children who are now being ineffectively dealt with at the most critical period of their lives.

The Journal of Delinquency

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THE PREVENTION OF DELINQUENCY

In this issue of the *Journal* Superintendent Fred. C. Nelles discusses the proposed "twenty-four hour school", an educational measure which he has advocated for several years. The plan calls for the establishment of a state public school for the education and moral training of exceptional children, to serve as a preventive of juvenile delinquency and for the encouragement of good citizenship. Those of us who have been associated with Superintendent Nelles, and the many others who have followed his progress at Whittier during the past eight years can easily understand the development and logic of this constructive suggestion.

Eight years ago the Whittier plant housed an industrial school of the old type. Although a number of intelligent persons were deeply devoted to its welfare, and were constantly and sincerely endeavoring to bring about improvements, the "reform school" traditions had become so deeply embedded in the fabric of the organization that serious obstacles were met on every hand. The basis of employment was wholly unstandardized. Little or no provision had been made to meet the educational problems. The state had not yet recognized the importance of the vocational training and guid-

ance which are necessary to the return of delinquent boys to society. There was no scientific classification, no method of differentiating the intelligence groups, no recognition of the prevalence of the higher grades of feeble-mindedness which resulted from miscellaneous and inadequately investigated commitments. The school was operating on the congregate plan, a single massive building housing nearly all of its activities, from the hospital to the classroom. A rigid military system prevailed. Several forms of corporal punishment were often administered. Boys and young men of all ages, from eight to twenty-one, were received. In some cases almost mature men, through false testimony as to their ages, had been admitted to the school, resulting often in the serious moral degradation of boys of tender years. From the investment point of view the state was beginning to ask for a better accounting of the thousands of dollars appropriated for institutional work.

Introduced into this atmosphere, Mr. Nelles became deeply conscious that there was something fundamentally wrong. The state was spending its funds, the boys (some of them) were being retained, but the sum-total of results indicated small returns on the investment. The school was not preventing delinquency, seldom correcting it, and in some instances contributing to it. Whether these facts were characteristic of all the industrial schools of the country, or whether California was suffering from more than its share, was a debatable question; but in either event it was apparent that there was need for reform. As a beginning, Mr. Nelles made some immediate changes in the policy of the school. Corporal punishment, including the use of the "Oregon boot", was abolished. A better segregation was effected for the younger boys. Plans were formulated to make the girls' department a separate institution, eventually to be removed to another location. A close personal contact was established with the boys, and most of the boys responded. Expert advice was sought for the different activities of the school, and improvements were made as rapidly as the circumstances would permit.

The fundamental wrong, as Mr. Nelles saw it, was that the state was paying too little attention to the problem. It was spending money as a necessary acknowledgment of an obvious and dangerous condition, but was avoiding the responsibility of seeing that the condition was corrected, or that something was done to prevent it. Some of the suggestions advanced as a result of his observations were:

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Abbott, Julia Wade. *The Child and the Kindergarten.* Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. Washington. Kindergarten Circular No. 6. Feb. 1920. pp. 28.

A plea for the kindergarten as a socializing influence, showing what is being done in our best schools to "teach children by children" and to keep intact all vivid, tingling interest and activity that the child of five or six brings with him when he leaves his baby realm and steps into the larger circle of his peers. Through play kindergarten children learn the give and take of social life and make those contacts with the real things about them which are to open the door to a new world. Differences in interest and maturity will be clearly shown in a group of five-year-olds. Leaderships develop naturally and spontaneously. The children learn by doing. The less stable child is unconsciously steadied and developed by association with his stronger fellows. Every effort is made to avoid doing things for the child, to keep hands off (the most difficult of all the teacher's arts) and to let him work out his own ideas. The circular, beautifully illustrated and charmingly written, should be in the hands of every one interested in children whether at school or at home or just anywhere. (J. M.)

Burmeister, Marie E. *A Study of Six Hundred Boys Committed to the Minnesota State Training School.* Minnesota State Training School. Red Wing, Minn. 1919. pp. 22.

An interesting report giving the results of intelligence tests, supplemented with data on physical conditions, history of conduct, home conditions, and school progress. Stealing, incorrigibility and truancy were the most frequently occurring offenses. The home conditions, graded by the Whittier Scale, were found to be poor, the median home index being 13 points. The score ranged, however, from 5 to 24 points. Of 100 homes investigated, 26 were found to be "pernicious," 30 were "weak," 21 were "fair," and 23 were "good." Parental supervision was found to be the weakest factor. The intelligence tests (Stanford-Binet Scale) gave an I. Q. range of .47 to 1.17, with a median of .79. The classifications are as follows: feeble-minded, 27.5 per cent; borderline, 24 per cent; dull-normal, 24.5 per cent; average, 23 per cent; superior, 1 per cent. The school histories suggest that maladjustment in school may be as important as low mental level in persistent delinquency during the adolescent period. The report is illustrated with interesting charts, and is a credit to the institution and to Miss Burmeister. (J. H. W.)

Burnham, William H. *Success and Failure as Conditions of Mental Health.* Reprinted from Mental Hygiene, III-3. July, 1919. pp. 387-97.

This pamphlet emphasizes the need for a more general understanding of the value of success as a stimulus to growth and an aid to satisfactory mental adjustments. The child first entering the big new world of school life stands at one of his greatest crises. Thus far, he has succeeded marvelously in his conquests over his environment. Now, in too many instances he is, by the very conditions and practices of our schools, doomed to failure. Both school and home should give opportunities for legitimate success. The application of the psychology of success

should take the sting out of worry. A worry fairly faced, met and analyzed may become of itself an occasion of success. In order to avoid chronic worry, both children and adults should be trained to live each day for itself and close the account each night. Most helpful is the insight that it is the doing itself which matters, that the battle of life is worth while for its own sake. Children need success in large doses. It is vital for the normal. The diseased are often cured by it. Teachers, physicians, social workers, must see that their charges have this stimulus. On these simple conditions the author insists, do our sanity and insanity our happiness, our association complexes and our characters, depend. (J.M.)

Chicago Municipal Court. *Report of the Psychopathic Laboratory.* May 1, 1914 to April 30, 1917. pp. 392.

A report from Judge Olsen's court, the psychopathic laboratory of which is under the direction of Dr. William J. Hickson. The preface states that the facts presented were "gathered as an incident to the annual outlay of nearly \$6,000,000 for the police department and nearly \$1,000,000 a year court expenditures for a city of two and one-half million people. They are expensive facts, therefore, that can nowhere else be gathered with the same facility. The five thousand policemen of the city act as agents in bringing material to the laboratory." The examination of cases includes the use of a miscellaneous group of mental tests, each subject being diagnosed according to the individual needs of the case. Combined statistics are presented on "intensive individual, criminalistic, psychiatric, psychologic, neurologic, hereditary, anthropometric, sociologic studies of 4468 cases." Of these 2025 were from the boys' court, 1275 from the domestic relations court, 947 from the morals court, and 329 from other branches. A large proportion of the subjects referred to were "clinically outspoken cases of defectiveness." A large number of case histories are given, with many pages of performances of subjects on the Binet design drawing tests. The usual proportions of mental deficiency were found, with a large additional proportion of cases showing psychopathic conditions. The report states that the work of the court is made considerably more efficient by the aid of the laboratory findings. (J. H. W.)

Chisolm, B. Ogden. *Making The Prisoner Over.* Reprint from The Evening Post Magazine. New York. July 26, 1919. Price 25 cents.

In this brief pamphlet, the author strikes the key-note of penal work-reformation as against retribution. He emphasizes the need for re-education in the matter of the prisoner's view-point and of initial education in such matters as the true concept of law and justice, environment and its relation to character, etc. The author's idea is the re-forming of the offender through kindness and more intelligent care. This would involve the elimination of the cell-block system and the unsuited prison attendant; in the place of these would come the cottage system and the attendant who believes in redirecting the human energies found in a group of prisoners. While the author points out the necessity for true reformatory work, he fails to make any reference to the need of a scientific study of each prisoner before this work in the building of moral character can successfully take place. How much more satisfactory might this work be if based upon knowledge of the intelligence and of the psychiatric, physical and neurological conditions of each individual. (E.K.B.)

Committee on Home Economics. *Budget Planning in Social Case Work.* The Charity Organization Society. New York. 1919. pp. 31. Price 15 cents.

This bulletin discusses in detail the principle involved in budget-making with instructions for securing the necessary information as well as for the preparation of the budget itself. "Budget planning," says this publication, "acts as a short cut to accurate thinking concerning a family or personal financial situation," and is primarily intended for the use of the case-worker dealing with dependent families. As such, it assists in determining income, its minute distribution and brings to light any fallacies in that distribution, as well as pointing out the amount and character of assistance needed. There are three steps in budget-making. The first involves the securing of necessary information, such as amount of income and its character, present and past, and present, past and expected future expenditures. These data should involve detailed information along every possible line and may be roughly grouped under: (1) housing and housekeeping expenditures; (2) food; (3) clothing; (4) expenses necessitated by employment; (5) expenses for health and personal care; (6) recreational expenditures; (7) educational expenditures; (8) payments assumed under definite obligations, such as church contributions, insurance premiums, etc. The second step is the preparation of the budget in written form. At this point the emphasis is laid upon the need for the individualization of each budget; it should be worked out with a view to requirements for the desired standard of living and the particular needs of family in question—not for an average family. The third step is the "utilization of the budget plan in securing desired improvements in the family's living standards." Obviously the most important factor in budget-making is the establishment of the "desired standard of living." This is a problem peculiar to each community and once set, the budget, as outlined in this bulletin, is the only accurate and fair means of determining the amount and character of relief needed. The suggestions offered for securing the desired information afford a basis of inquiry that could be used to advantage in other lines of case work and investigation. (E. K. B.)

Doll, Edgar A. *The Average Mental Age of Adults.* Reprinted from *Journal of Applied Psychology*, IV-4, Dec. 1919. pp. 317-323.

Since the publication of the Stanford-Binet Scale, there has been general acceptance of Terman's 16 year level as the average mental age of adults. Doll undertakes in this article to show that the findings of the U. S. Army tests tend to indicate that the average mental age of adult males is nearer 13 than 16 years. He has also applied the Army Alpha scale to juveniles in public and special schools, and his data seems to show a tendency for intellectual development to smooth off after the age of 13. He also emphasizes the importance of basing determinations of feeble-mindedness upon social criteria. There is, of course, a wide zone of borderlinity in which special data must supplement the tests. The reviewer concurs in the stress placed upon the use of social data. This is especially important in the study of delinquency and other forms of social variation. That the 13 year level by the Stanford-Binet Scale represents average-normal intelligence seems to the reviewer to be a rather sweeping contention. The average mental age of young adult delinquents in California is approximately 13 years. It is all but inconceivable that these should so nearly follow the normal intelligence distribution as Doll's contention would make out. It will be interesting, however, to test the hypothesis on the basis of more extensive investigation. (J. H. W.)

Dooley, William H. *Principles and Methods of Industrial Education—for Use in Teacher Training Classes*. Houghton Mifflin Company, The Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1919. pp. 257.

The sub-title of this volume defines its primary field of influence without fully indicating its possible values. The nature of the contents is such as to provide useful reference and stimulus material for the teacher after he is certified and at work as well as during the training period. As is stated in Professor Prosser's editorial introduction, the value of the book "lies in its compact summing-up of facts and principles, its 'sampling' of method and devices in organizing material for purposes of instruction." The general outline of the material involves exposition of, first, the general theories and the history of development of industrial education, then passes to more particular consideration of the technical organization and teaching of the subject matter. For the student or teacher interested in developing the problems of industrial education, the discussion questions following each chapter bring out factors of both theory and technique which serve to round out the text. The Appendix is particularly rich in practical suggestions for organization and courses of study. The discussion as a whole is intensely practical, yet productive of thought, since it not only outlines recognized standards of procedure, but also gives such data and illustrative facts as will stimulate the student to recognize the problems and work out his own solutions. The book is a valuable contribution to modern education. (K. M. C.)

Terman, Lewis M. *The Intelligence of School Children*. New York. Houghton Mifflin Co. 1919. pp. 317. Price \$1.75.

Following the publication in 1916 of Professor Terman's *Measurement of Intelligence* the Stanford-Binet scale has become widely adopted as the standard method of making intelligence comparisons. The author's valuable work in extending the Binet scale is now supplemented with a discussion of practical results which these tests produce. In the *Intelligence of School Children* he deals with the principles of intelligence testing, the amount and significance of individual differences, standards for grading by mental ability, tests of school laggards, the I.Q. as a basis of prediction, children of superior intelligence, intelligence tests in vocational and educational guidance, and practical suggestions for the use of mental tests. The chapters on superior children should be of great help to teachers and school principals in matters of promotion. There is a reason to believe that there will be less juvenile delinquency and more efficient instruction in the schools when intelligence is made the basis for school grading. This book should be in the hands of teachers, principals, supervisors, psychologists and educational directors who wish to keep abreast with the movement for better schools and more efficient pupils. (J. H. W.)

Warner, Amos G. *American Charities*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. Third Edition, 1918. Revised by Mary Roberts Coolidge. pp. 540.

A thorough revision of what Dr. George Elliott Howard in his biographical preface refers to as a "classic in philanthropy". The changes made include the revision of statistical data, the substitution of new tabular and graphic presentations, and the addition of 25,000 words of new manuscript. Especially interesting are the newer aspects of feeble-mindedness and dependency brought out. The belief is expressed (Chapter XII) that of all charity the work of the welfare of children

is the most hopeful. Experimental and research work, with saner points of view relative to the social significance of adequate child-caring methods, are crystallizing into constructive programs for institution management and individual supervision. When the state sees the necessity for the adequate training and guidance of every child, normal and abnormal, and when institutions are equipped for meeting the individual needs of their charges, "then we shall have a claim to being civilized." The chapter on feeble-mindedness (XV) is ably written, and speaks well for the revising author's knowledge of the subject. Sums running into thousands of dollars are annually being spent on forms of so-called charity which in reality is but contributing to the perpetuation of inferior mental stock. Delinquency, crime, dependency, prostitution and other social causes for charity can never be eliminated so long as we permit feeble-minded persons to reproduce their kind. In its revised form this book stands as a greatly improved standard work on the subject. (J. H. W.)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Moral Conflicts and Juvenile Crime. Psychological studies of criminals have thus far touched only the surface of the problem. Dr. Healy's study of "Mental Conflicts and Misconduct" explores the deeper causes. He is undoubtedly far too conservative in his estimate of the proportion of cases where mental conflict is a major or contributing factor. Delinquencies caused by conflict are important because they are unusually grave, are peculiarly recurrent and if taken in time are eminently curable. Above all they affect the finer, more sensitive and intelligent delinquents. The conflict is usually a struggle between a lower instinctive tendency and a social ideal. Sex instincts, experiences, ideas and habits are prone to be repressed and later to emerge in substitute reactions, truancy, stealing, destructiveness and the like. These acts are often compulsive. Punishment is ineffectual. Mental analysis should be undertaken and should reveal to the delinquent the origin of his delinquencies. Where a mischievous habit has been established there will need to be re-education. Dr. Healy's work is sane, unbiased and scientific. However much influenced by Freudian doctrines, his data, methods and conclusions are independent and based upon a thorough going procedure. Gratitude is due to Mrs. W. F. Dummer who made possible these studies at the Psychopathic Institute of the Juvenile Court of Chicago.—*Cyril Burt*. *Child Study* (London), XII-2, Dec. 1919. pp. 22-25. (J. M.)

The Problem of Educability. At two points the elementary school needs reconstruction. These points are the proficiency level of the first grade and the proficiency level of the working certificate. Every first grade pupil learning to read displays to the clinical psychologist and educator a measurable competency, partly organic, partly acquired. The use of clinical tests and measurements would eliminate the incompetent and save the enormous waste of time and effort that the present system of mass education involves. Clinical measurement is indispensable again at the 14-year level. The release from school now depends upon having reached the sixth grade or some other standard. A more scientific treat-

ment must be undertaken for children who are refused permission to go to work. There is need for a change in the attitude of the personnel of the schools. The orientation of the clinical psychologist must be accepted and workers trained to employ diagnosis at every step of educational progress.—*Lightner Witmer*. The Psychological Clinic, XII-5-9, May 15, 1919. pp. 174-178. (J. M.)

Emotional Instability in Children. Some systematic observation of tendencies toward psychopathic personalities should be made by those giving mental examinations to children. For this purpose the questionnaire prepared by Dr. Woodworth for predicting the development of psychoses and neuroses in adults was taken as a basis and 60 questions formulated for children. These were given to 75 boys of the 5th grade in New York City. Forty of them were in a nutritional class, 35 in a control group. A score of 15 wrong answers was assumed to indicate a tendency toward abnormality. A score of 25 to warrant grave suspicions. The scores of the nutrition group ranged from 0 to 28, average 10.05. Twelve of this group (30 per cent) made a score of from 15 to 25, one, of 25 or more. Scores for the control group range from 0 to 34, average 7.14. Six of these (17 per cent) had from 15 to 25 wrong answers, one 25 or more. The questions were also given as a group test to 255 children, ages 10 to 18 in the vacation schools of Baltimore. Results there indicate an increase in instability with an increase in years. Several problems regarding these questions need more study but wrong answers to many of them, or the same information secured by observations of individuals, indicate emotional instability worthy of serious consideration.—*Buford Johnson*. Ungraded, V-4, Jan. 1920. pp. 73-79. (J. M.)

A Community Program for Protective Work with Girls. The morally endangered and the waywardly inclined girls are to be found in every community and will long remain a perplexing problem. Preventive and restorative measures should be applied throughout the country. A number of suggestions are made as to the steps to be taken with the girls of the Juvenile Court age. Under A, Preventive Measures are (1) alert community interest; (2) protection against family neglect; (3) checking incipient waywardness; (4) women protective officers; (5) housing, social life, recreation, and religion; and (6) sex instruction. Under B, General Protective Laws are (1) age jurisdiction; (2) borderline cases of neglect; (3) age of consent; and (4) community protection. Under C, Juvenile Court Inquiry are (1) non-court versus court cases; (2) preliminary investigation and Juvenile Court complaint bureau; (3) medical and mental examination; (4) Juvenile Court hearings; (5) temporary detention; and (6) women officials. Under D, Probation and Placing Out are (1) probation; (2) moving to other neighborhoods; and (3) placing in private families. Under E, Institutional Care and Parole are (1) institutional care; (2) custodial institutions for mental defectives; (3) hospital care for venereal disease; (4) investigation of applications for parole; (5) paroling authority; (6) parole supervision; and (7) placing out. Under F, Prosecution of Adult Offenders against Girls are (1) prosecution of adult offenders, (2) law enforcement against parents and relatives; (3) rape prosecutions; (4) needed reforms in handling rape cases; and (5) fines and capital punishment. Under G, Cases of Pregnancy and Child Marriage are (1) protection for pregnant girls; (2) affiliation proceedings; (3) medical care and maternity homes; (4) custody of the infant; (5) questions of marriage of pregnant girls; (6) control of child marriages;

and (7) marriage as a compromise measure in rape cases. Under H, Guardianship, (1) guardianship. Under I, Co-ordination of Effort are (1) cooperation of agencies; (2) the male side of prevention; and (3) family court. In view of the magnitude and seriousness of the girl-problem, and the marked interest aroused during the war may we hope that the country will wage a campaign in behalf of these girls.—*Arthur W. Towne*. Social Hygiene, VI-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 57-70. (M. S. C.)

Protect the Moron. The morons, for whom permanent segregation is urged by many, should be protected. Many "hard, unpleasant, monotonous jobs" are shunned by everyone, and yet are especially suited to the moron's ability, provided he is adequately protected from the contaminating influences of society which his suggestibility makes doubly dangerous. Rather than look for the ultimate elimination of the moron, let him be known and sent to a school for his kind where he may be protected and trained with a view to later returning him to society to perform these unpopular tasks.—*H. Addington Bruce*. Reprinted from the New York Globe, in Ungraded, V-3, Dec. 1919. pp. 71-72. (E. K. B.)

Current Misconceptions Regarding Reformation. No one may expect to reform who believes that (1) it is possible to do so without a long period of practicing reformation, and (2) that much help in reformation is available outside the offender's own thinking. The favorite metaphor used is "turning over a new leaf", and it is an unfortunate idea as it gives the impression that a simple act is sufficient to cover up the past. The first and essential step is a *feeling of regret* for the damage done oneself and others. The next logical step is the *intention to do better*, then *make a plan* for better thinking and acting. Offenders are usually several years forming bad habits, so it will take at least as long to unlearn the evil habits. In five years lived according to a good plan, one could learn a trade, advance a neglected education, form good associates, accumulate a small bank account, and advance far on the road to reformation. Reformation must be a self-wrought process. No reformatory or other agency outside the offender's own mind, can reform a personality, but they may indirectly assist in the uplifting. A modern reformatory is well adapted to prepare an offender for reformation which he must work out for himself just as a high school boy plans and works for his college course. Only the well equipped mentally may hope to succeed in self-reformation. The habit formation among the sub-normal may in some cases make them capable of returning to their families, after a sufficient term of training. At present there are no institutions of the kind above indicated for "defective delinquents", but before many years we shall have them.—*Guy G. Fernald*. Mental Hygiene, III-4, Oct. 1919. pp. 646-649. (M. S. C.)

Better Statistics in Criminology. Ignorance concerning crime and criminals in this country is appalling. We have no means of ascertaining the number of crimes committed, the number of arrests made, or the number of convictions resulting therefrom. For purposes of study we could first have a general survey of the country as a whole which would show the crimes, arrests and convictions. Second, we could show the effects of various methods of treatment on persons convicted of crimes. Third, we could study the causes of crime and the genesis of the criminal. Before statistics can be compiled much preliminary work must be done. A uniform adoption of the classification of crime by federal and state authorities must be accepted. Uniform statistical records and reports must be made.

A system of this sort to be successful must be handled by central statistical bureaus. Four years ago statistics on mental disease in this country were no better than present statistics on criminals. Success in this field seems to point the way for action in the field of statistics in criminology. *Horatio M. Pollock*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-3, July 1919. pp. 453-457. (M.S.C.)

Mental Rating of Juvenile Dependents and Delinquents in Alabama. A survey conducted in four industrial schools in Alabama at the request of the newly organized Board of Control and Economy. The investigation included the Alabama Boys' School at East Lake (307 white boys); the State Training School for Girls, at Birmingham (45 white girls); the Mercy Home Industrial School for Girls at Birmingham (30 white girls); and the Alabama Reform School for Juvenile Negro Law-Breakers, at Mt. Meigs (264 colored boys.) The children range in age from 7 to 20 years. According to age-grade standards, all but 8 of 304 children were retarded one or more years in school. All but 30 children were retarded more than one year. The application of group intelligence tests supplemented with individual examinations show a proportionate mental retardation, the proportions of feeble-mindedness being as follows: white boys, 14 per cent; white girls, 21 per cent; colored boys, 22 per cent. Practically all of those classified as feeble-minded or borderline test below the level of the lowest two per cent of unselected public school children. The group intelligence tests were found to be highly valuable in the survey, and to result in a saving of labor. The suggestion is made that the low ratings obtained for colored children may be due in part to the inaccuracy of data as to actual ages, or to the uncertainty of applicability of the Binet-Simon standards to the negro mind.—*W. D. Bartlow and Thomas H. Haines*. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, IV-4, Dec. 1919. p. 291. (J. H. W.)

Three Cases of Larceny in which the Antisocial Conduct Appeared to Represent an Effort to Compensate for Emotional Repression. In the lives of each of the three women described, all of whom were arrested for larceny, there is a history of much emotional disturbance. In the first case the girl because of the peculiar strain in her environment which became more oppressive than usual found an outlet in one antisocial act. In the second case, the actual conflict centered about the girl's married life; her difficulty in adjusting herself to marital conditions. She showed a strong objection to anyone exercising authority over her. It was shortly after her husband's attempt at controlling her that she started shoplifting which continued for 7 years. It represented an effort to gain satisfaction in expressing her ego by successfully defying the law. During her stay in the reformatory her interests were aroused in clerical and literary work so that she soon gained satisfaction in this way which assisted her to reconstruct her life along normal lines. The third case was a girl sent to the reformatory on the charge of stealing. In this case the girl's emotions had been aroused at an early age in a way in which she always associated with shame, which in later years caused sexual repression. Because of this the conflict expressed itself antisocially. The outlets which she chose seemed to furnish her in some way with an illusion of compensation. The future analysis of this case should be full of interest. In all three cases, had the mental life been accessible to wise guidance at an earlier period, the antisocial behavior might easily have been prevented.—*Edith R. Spaulding*. *Mental Hygiene*, IV-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 82-102. (M.S.C.)

INSTITUTION REPORTS

Connecticut. *Industrial School for Girls.* Forty-eighth and Forty-ninth Reports. 1918. Caroline de Ford Penniman, superintendent. Middletown, Conn. pp. 41.

This neat, clearly written report gives one a definite picture of the work and problems of the School. Among the recent developments under the new superintendency are more frequent placements on parole, a regrading of educational work on the basis of educational tests, and the elimination of the feeble-minded from class instruction which greatly simplifies both teaching and management in the school rooms. However it is not stated whether those classed as feeble-minded were so designated by observation or as a result of intelligence diagnosis by the use of standardized tests. (W. W. C.)

Iowa. *Training School for Boys.* Twenty-sixth Biennial Report of the Superintendent and Sixth Biennial Report of the State Agent. June 30, 1918. W. L. Kuser, superintendent. Eldora, Iowa. pp. 76.

Of particular interest in this report is the statement of the physician and psychiatrist concerning self-abuse and bed-wetting. Of 449 boys examined and interrogated 90 per cent practiced self-abuse; of 460 examined, 78 boys were troubled with enuresis, which, under careful treatment, showed gratifying prognosis. A number of tables are presented in the report relative to parole work, indicating in general that about 72 per cent of the boys are succeeding. (W. W. C.)

Massachusetts. *Training Schools.* Eighth Annual Report. 1918. pp. 117.

This annual contains the reports of the two industrial schools for boys and the industrial school for girls in Massachusetts. Owing to pressure of commitments and inadequate accommodations the period of stay is being lessened to an average of about one year and greater reliance placed on closer parole supervision. The problems of feeble-mindedness are mentioned and Superintendent Campbell states that they should have the "services of a psychologist who can make such determinations as to mentality as are possible in a direct way, and also will be a man capable of assisting us in character analysis." Examinations of special girls' cases have been made at the Psychopathic Hospital, and the need of examinations in all cases is recognized. (W. W. C.)

Maryland. *St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys.* Fiftieth Annual Report. 1918. Brother Paul, superintendent. Baltimore, Md. pp. 60.

This report of one of the large Catholic industrial schools for boys contains many items of interest concerning the industrial training provided. During the year 1560 boys were cared for at the School and about a hundred more were kept in St. James Home for Boys where they live while working in the city of Baltimore. The views contained in the report indicate something of the loss suffered when practically the entire institution was destroyed by fire in April, 1919. (W. W. C.)

Missouri. *State Prison Board.* Biennial period ending December 31, 1918. W. H. Painter, president. pp. 268.

This report includes the usual statements concerning administrative problems and financial and social statistics relative to the State Penitentiary, Missouri Reformatory, Industrial Home for Girls, and Industrial Home for Negro Girls. In June, 1917 the new Prison Board was inducted into office and gave attention principally to the reorganization of the various institutions. The merit and honor systems were installed and a probation system organized on the basis of merits for the reformatory. Attention appears to be largely directed to the practical administrative problems; although it is stated that individual attention is given to the care and treatment of the inmates, it is apparently not based on the scientific study of the problems involved. (W. W. C.)

New York. Catholic Protectory. Fifty-seventh Annual Report. 1919. Myles Tierney, president. Westchester, N. Y. pp. 79.

The Protectory is one of the largest institutions for dependent and delinquent children, having cared for 4402 boys and 995 girls during the fiscal year. However the population in the institution at any one time consists of about one-half this number owing to the movement of population. Nearly all cases are received by commitment and are supported by counties or cities. The Protectory includes Boy's Department and Girl's Department at Westchester, N. Y. C., Lincoln Agricultural School at Lincolndale, N. Y., and a House of Reception and St. Philip's Home for Industrious Boys in New York City. A Placing-out bureau is maintained for both boys and girls for whom "every effort to secure suitable homes" is made for the children who have "attained considerable success". The report contains a number of cuts showing various buildings and activities of the institution. It indicates only briefly and in general terms the organization for educational, vocational, and religious instruction. (W. W. C.)

New York. Juvenile Asylum. Sixty-seventh Annual Report. 1918. Guy Morgan, superintendent. Dobbs Ferry, N. Y. pp. 56.

Preferably known as The Children's Village, this institution "has attained a deservedly high position as a cottage home school in which the students are surrounded by a wholesome home atmosphere, and by those influences which tend to develop the mind and inculcate good morals, manliness and the responsibilities of citizenship. In addition, the boys are given the opportunity of preparing for a useful place in life through industrial and vocational training." It has had the reputation of "a model institution" and has made remarkable administrative advances in providing individualization and home life for its 600 boys. (W. W. C.)

New York. State Reformatories. Report of the State Board of Managers. Elmira-48rd report; Napanoch-18th Report. 1918. Frank L. Christian, superintendent. Elmira, N. Y. pp. 92.

In general, the average population of the two state reformatories reduced itself about one-half that of ordinary times due (1) to extraordinary industrial conditions that began at outbreak of war with the resultant remunerative employment, and (2) to the entry of the U. S. into the war as the average age of population is about 21 years. In the past, short periods of "hard times" have caused the reformations to be overcrowded and this situation may again be expected. Dr. Glueck is reported as finding at Sing Sing prison that 66.7 per cent of the inmates, beyond having committed the crime that caused their conviction, were individuals who had shown throughout life a tendency to act in a manner

contrary to the behavior of the average normal person, while about 30 per cent had a degree of intelligence not exceeding that of a child of twelve years. A similar situation was revealed by examinations in the state reformatories. In addition to the usual reports and tables, "A Study of Five Hundred Parole Violators" by Dr. Christian is included in this report, (previously reviewed) analyzing the social and mental factors involved and affording a valuable contribution to the meager literature in this field. (W. W. C.)

New Jersey. *State Home for Girls.* Forty-eighth Annual Report. 1918. Mrs. E. V. H. Mansell, superintendent. Trenton, New Jersey. pp. 11.

A brief, concise statement indicating a few of the problems and needs of the School, particularly the development of recreational facilities within and parole methods without. The report of the psychologist gives results of intelligence testing as follows: White, normal, 12; borderline, 28; defective, 32; Colored, normal, 3; borderline, 8; defective, 15. (W. W. C.)

Pennsylvania. *The Glen Mills Schools.* Ninety-first Annual Report. 1919. F. H. Nibecker, superintendent Boys' Department, Glenn Mills, Pa. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent Girls' Department, Darlington, Pa. pp. 59.

This report contains the administrative, social and financial statistics usually found in annual reports. The parole work both of Boys' and Girls' Departments appear to be well organized; about 600 boys are in care of four visiting agents. In addition to visiting each boy from three to seven times during the year, 93 per cent of those paroled have been provided with "big brothers." The Girls' School maintains a Child Study Department in charge of a psychologist who gives mental examinations and "makes as carefully detailed a study as possible of every girl committed to the school. This is done so that she may be placed in the environment most suited to her and given the training by which she is best able to profit." Of 219 entering girls examined by Stanford Revision of Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale in eight months, it was found that 64.8 per cent were definitely feeble-minded, 10.5 per cent borderline, 13.7 per cent dull-normal, and 10.9 per cent normal. (W. W. C.)

Texas. *State Juvenile Training School.* Annual Report of the Board of Trustees. 1917-1918. C. F. King, superintendent. Gatesville, Texas. pp. 36.

This institution is being changed from a reformatory to an industrial school for youths under seventeen years of age. During the past five years its population has increased from about 300 to 736, due to "the fact that the Juvenile Act touches classes hitherto left to their own devices." The superintendent and trustees have apparently taken a broad view in the development of the work in fostering a state-wide policy, and are requesting facilities for proper treatment, segregation, and supervision. (W. W. C.)

United States. *Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kansas.* Annual Report. June 30, 1919. A. V. Anderson, warden. Leavenworth, Kansas. pp. 105.

This report is limited to administrative and financial data, including reports of goods produced and work done. At the end of the fiscal year there were 2011 prisoners in the penitentiary. (W. W. C.)

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TREATMENT OF CRIMINALS

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The history of the treatment of the criminal bears a striking resemblance to that of the insane. In fact, the methods of treating these two collateral maladies of social and physical degeneracy have been identical, have passed through the same periods of evolution and have arrived at the same goal.

The insane were at one time regarded as demon-infested individuals and they were subjected to all manner of barbarous and cunning cruelties to expel evil spirits which were thought to possess them. Later this view was somewhat changed and their insanities were looked upon as being the results of sin. Religious remedies and lessons in morality were applied, but without results, while methods of torture and punishment were resumed.

The lot of the insane was indeed a sad one until in 1793, when Pinel broke the shackles of iron and prejudice from the mentally diseased, proved them to be sick individuals and not the abode of evil spirits or the objects of wrath of an angry God. This marked the beginning of the period of scientific treatment which is in force at the present time.

The first idea that regulated humanity's dealings with the violators of her laws was that of vengeance and retaliation. Much time was spent in contriving plans and constructing devices for the torture of prisoners. The stage of vengeance was succeeded by the period in which the idea of retributive justice was prominent. Prisoners were punished cruelly and without reason; the more severe the punishment, the more efficacious it was thought to be. As late as 1797, two hundred and twenty-two different crimes ranging from petit larceny to murder were punishable by death, and history records more than thirty ways of inflicting the death penalty. And yet this drastic method did not reduce crime. At one time the methods of trial were as cruel, and many times more so, than the punishment itself. The trial by ordeal which was practiced in the early part of the thirteenth century is particularly illustrative of this fact.

This method of trial by ordeal was really a religious rite and was conducted by the clergy. They assumed that Diety would interfere sometime during the procedure and indicate the innocence or guilt of the accused. The alleged criminal was prepared for his trial by three days of fasting and prayer; he was then brought into the church and a religious ceremony was performed. When the rites were finished the alleged criminal was compelled to immerse his arm in a pot of boiling water or oil and pick from the bottom of it a stone, varying in weight with the degree of the alleged crime. The tortured member was then bound in bandages which were removed on the third day, and if any sign of scalding was present the prisoner was held to be guilty, and if none were to be found, God was thought to have intervened to show the innocence of the accused. Some of the alleged criminals, after a preparation of fasting and prayer, had their hands and feet tied together, and then were thrown into a pond; if they sank they were innocent and if they floated they were guilty. There were various other forms of trial of a similar nature, such as walking barefooted over hot stones and plowshares; carrying red-hot peices of metal the distance of nine feet; and in both instances, if the skin was burned, the prisoner was held to be guilty because God had not interfered in his behalf. There is no record that the priests ever employed these methods of trial upon themselves. They tried themselves by merely swallowing a piece of bread called corsnaed, and in case a priest was guilty, it was claimed by the clergy that he would be poisoned and if innocent there would be no danger. History does not record that any priest died by this means of trial.

The trial by wager of battle was introduced into England by William the Conqueror. The accused and the accuser selected someone to fight for them and a combat was carried on before some specified authority. The individual who was beaten or lost his life was held to be guilty. Further descriptions of these trials are not necessary since they have in common the brutalities of this period.

As charitable and modern religious ideas began to permeate and diffuse themselves into the social consciousness, the period of reformation followed the futile and barren era of retribution. The idea of reformation then governed and designated in a large manner the way in which criminals should be treated.

Pope Clement XI is credited with having introduced the reformatory treatment of prisoners and over the door of the Hospital of St. Michael in Rome in the year 1704 he inscribed this significant state-

ment: "For the correction and instruction of profligate youth, that they, who when idle were injurious, may when taught become useful to the State." This marked the beginning of a great epoch in society's methods of dealing with the delinquent. The reformatory idea spread but slowly upon the continent of Europe and not until the time of John Howard was any great progress made. This illustrious prison worker was born in London, September 2, 1726. He was an intensely religious individual and his work in the English prisons was at all times regulated by his religious beliefs. In fact he gave his whole life to prison reform; he toured the continent of Europe and visited all its prisons, and this he did at his own expense.

One writer says of him, "No one ever arose to champion the cause of the prisoner with clearer vision, deeper sympathy, or a more dauntless spirit of heroism than he." At this time in England, the law as well as the custom laid the cost of the prisons upon the prisoners. There were fees, rents, filth, squalor, starvation, swarms of vermin, colonies of rats, thumbscrews, underground dungeons, prisoners being chained to dead bodies, jail fevers and smallpox sweeping away hundreds; these with a thousand other iniquitous practices by the shameless magistrates give an idea of what kind of treatment the prisoners received and with what they had to contend. Howard found that the English public and parliament were utterly ignorant of prisons and prison treatment, and he made it his duty to carefully visit the principal prisons in every continental state, some of them repeatedly, gathering every information possible, and finally, having satisfied his exacting conscience, he published his book on the "State of Prisons". Thus he dragged the abomination of prison life into daylight and forced it upon the notice of the public and parliament. He died January 12, 1790 while on his way to Turkey and the Orient to inspect the prisons of those lands.

In Italy at practically the same time another great prison reformer by the name of Beccaria was working. His chief efforts were directed against the absurdities and cruelties of the existing criminal laws of his time. These contemporaries had many ideas in common concerning crime. They did not believe in physical torture, the death penalty, or life imprisonment. Both of them were opposed to imprisonment for debt and to long detention awaiting trial. The improvement in the treatment of criminals from the time of Howard was gradual and continuous, but very slow. The chief reason for this tardy progress in these reforms was due to the fact that the

theological idea of crime held sway. The criminal was looked upon as a sinner; all that was thought necessary was to convert him to religious beliefs and then the problem would be solved.

Within the last quarter of a century many religious workers often made the exaggerated claim that they could reform the prisoners to a man and cure them of their criminality. One very enthusiastic prison chaplain in the state of New York, in very recent years, claimed that he had converted and reformed ninety-four per cent of the prisoners in the institutions where he was chaplain. Religious workers swarmed in our penal institutions; all of them wanted an opportunity to share in the glory of making over a criminal. It was forgotten that the prisoner had a body and mind which needed attention. This fact was of no importance to them at all, or at least it was neglected.

In justice and fairness it has to be admitted that the reformatory idea was responsible for many improvements in penal institutions. The lot of the prisoner was improved but crime was not reduced. Individuals were sent to prison during this period to be reformed and preached at and it was held that the convict who did not respond to the application of religious lessons and moral precepts was beyond the pale of redemption and he deserved the severest kind of punishment. It is to be regretted, though it is nevertheless true, that some of our moral instructors of penal institutions, ignoring the advance of science, still cling to their pet theories that religious remedies are the only means to be employed in the solution of the criminal problem even though everywhere about them are multitudes of failures of their methods, which even a juggling of statistics cannot hide.

In the same manner as the treatment of the insane evolved so has the treatment of the criminal. We have passed the stage of brutality and retribution, through the period of religious reformation and we have now entered upon the scientific and humanitarian era in criminology. We no longer regard the convict as a demon-possessed unfortunate, or the wilful and conscious chooser of evil; but we do believe, after science has pushed through the crust of orthodoxy and delved into the study of those forces which regulate his actions, that he is in the majority of instances mentally and physically defective, that his crimes are manifestations of pathological conditions due to defects of cerebral development or to acquired retrograde changes of the central nervous system.

No matter how hard it may be to view the criminal as a sick man from the pulpit or from the dignified and solemn bench of the jurist, where we have condemned for deliberate sin or have pronounced the penalties of the statutes upon him, we will get this view of him, if we study crime and criminals, not from afar off, in clerical or judicial gowns, but in our shirtsleeves in the laboratories of psychopathology.

There is a striking resemblance between the formation of society and the structure of the human body. The physical organism is composed of millions of cells so joined as to form tissues and these tissues in turn are united to form organs which carry out the functions of the human economy. The social organism is composed of individuals grouped into classes and these classes are joined to form institutions and departments which carry out the functions of the political body. This analogy may be carried still further. The human body becomes diseased and degenerated and in like manner the social organism is subject to the ravages of disease and degeneracy. Crime may be looked upon as being a symptom of diseased body politic. Crime is a result of social and individual degeneracy. It would be highly presumptuous on the part of physicians if they applied the same remedy for the treatment of all diseases. And yet society has from time immemorial applied a single remedy of punishment and imprisonment to crime, which is but a symptomatic expression of social defect. The best method of treating any disease is its prevention. The old adage, "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure," should take first place in therapeutics of crime. It is at once admitted that a large part of crime can never be prevented or abolished, no matter how perfectly we may regulate human life; there are certain inherent tendencies in the human race, such as hate, anger, jealousy, combativeness, selfishness, etc., which are conducive to crime. It is easy enough to say from a theoretical standpoint that crime is dependent upon personal immorality and social degeneracy and if we suppress these two, that crime will be eliminated.

In the psychopathological laboratories of our penal and reformatory institutions it has been shown that crime is largely dependent upon mental defect and it is certain if we can prevent the inheritance of mental defectiveness we can to a great extent prevent delinquency. Since this thesis is somewhat of a recapitulation of the criminal problem from a psychiatric and psychological point of view, it will not be out of place to again mention eugenics as a treatment for the diseased body politic. It is within the power of the state to enact

and enforce such legislation as will control to a great degree the manufacture of idiots, imbeciles, moral degenerates, epileptics, insane and syphilitics.

The three most important methods which are calculated to eliminate to a great degree the above mentioned classes are the following:

1st. The restriction of marriage to those who are physically, morally and mentally unfit to assume the duties of parenthood.

2nd. The segregation of the feeble-minded, and more especially the females of this class, within the limits of the child-bearing period.

3rd. The asexualization of the degenerate, defective habitual criminal and chronically insane. The laws of this nature are now being opposed because of the blind, alarmed and superstitious conservatism that is entertained by the public and also because of the almost perfect indifference of society in general to the social and racial welfare.

When the social conscience has been sufficiently educated as to understand the facts of evil heredity the public will demand that eugenic laws be enacted and enforced and then one of the great tributaries of crime will be cut off. These measures will not be adopted for some time and even if they were, certain social factors must be considered and cared for.

The subject of social alleviation of crime is one with which the sociologists will carefully deal and a lengthy discussion of this subject is not intended in this article, though it will be well to mention this subject in passing. If society could be reorganized upon improved economic and political lines no doubt criminality would be greatly reduced. The reduction of poverty would reduce crimes against property to a very great degree and if better political relationship could be established between the government and the individual and between individuals, the number of crimes against persons would likewise be reduced. Before either of these reforms can take place, public education is necessary. The chief aim of education is to qualify the individual to secure the largest possibilities of life. Education will assist us in seeing the rights of others, the state's duty toward its citizens, and our duty toward ourselves. Some criminal reformers, as has been previously mentioned, who have displayed a tendency to charge all crime, or at least a larger part of it, to wilful sinfulness, have been busy advocating religious remedies

alone as their treatment for crime. The basis for their doctrine is a blind belief in the theory of absolute freedom of the will and a spirit of conservatism which is anxious to perpetuate existing religious ideas. Every thinking individual freely acknowledges that religious and moral teaching play a tremendous part in the regulation of humanity's conduct. The church perpetuates certain ethical and moral standards, without which society would sink to a very low level. The late Elbert Hubbard once wrote in his usual pungent style that the Catholic Church was in fact the greatest police force that New York City could have. He recognized that the clergy and the teachings of this church exercise a very strong restraining influence upon its communicants, among whom are a great many foreigners who have not acquired the American standards of living.

When the individual is untrammelled by evil birth; when poverty is prevented and economic ills corrected; when he will be given a well rounded education combined with a rationalized religion and intelligent conventional morality; when he is allowed to live a normal life in the pursuit of liberty and happiness, delinquency will largely disappear. We cannot hope to eliminate the criminal or crime in the near future; these ideals are too Utopian, but it is along these lines that we must make our endeavors. In fact we will have some criminals no matter how perfect society becomes. The criminal is here with us; we must deal with him as he is; we have treated him with barbarous cruelty and we have preached to him and coddled him within the last few years and we have failed in both these methods.

We are now entering the era of the treatment of the criminal. Treatment implies that we must make a diagnosis of disease before we proceed with the medication, and the same principles must hold true when dealing with criminality. This will mean a revision of our present criminal codes and such innovations are always skeptically received. The first changes to be made in our present methods relate to court procedure. Before the alleged criminal comes before the bar of justice he should be examined socially, physically and mentally in a psychopathic laboratory, that his mental status may be fully determined. There are at the present time several psychopathic institutes in connection with our courts. They are not yet strictly official organizations except in a few instances and for the most part are supported by private enterprise. Chief among these is the laboratory in Chicago, attached to the court of Chief Justice Olson. He

has set a splendid example for all the rest of the courts of the land and his new departure in criminal procedure is arousing a keen interest all over the United States. Smaller institutions of like character are now being organized in various parts of the country. A similar court psychopathic institute is now in operation in Boston. The work that they have done fully justifies their existence and proves the correctness of the theories of those who have organized them.

It has been shown that widely different crimes may be committed from the same motives and the same crime may be committed from widely different motives. Little attention is paid to this great truth in our courts as they are ordinarily conducted. It would be one of the functions of the court laboratory to explain the motivation of crime in each individual case that equity may be practiced. Individualization of the treatment of the criminal cannot be carried too far, lest it undermine the social defense. Laws cannot be made to fit every individual case by legislation. Some standards must be preserved, but our courts should know the history of the criminal, including his heredity, education, occupation, previous criminal record and his condition of life, his mental status at the time of the commission of his crime and at the time of trial, and the origin, character and intensity of his crime. When all this information is gathered together and presented to the court, the judge and jury will have a vast fund of information which will enable them to deal with the criminal more intelligently than at present.

Our prisons and reformatories in general are greatly in need of improved administration. The control of prison management should be taken from the politicians who have heretofore received their appointments in recognition of their political service and not because of any particular qualifications. In the past the other officials and guards have been selected in the same manner. These practices have been one of the most grievous faults of prison management and have materially hindered progress in penology. It is gratifying however to see that the official personnel of penal institutions has greatly improved in the last ten years, but there is still opportunity for progress along these lines. The control of penal institutions should be in the hands of educated men, preferably psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists or educators. Accumulated evidence concerning the character and mental makeup of the prisoner unmistakably points to such a choice. An uneducated, illiterate, blindly prejudiced, political henchman cannot grasp the first principles of

scientific penology. He cannot understand that a prison should be a moral hospital and an educational institution.

At least two-thirds of the inmates of our penal and reformatory institutions are physically and mentally defective. Prisoners are received into our institutions suffering with all degrees of all the sicknesses to which human flesh is heir. This state of affairs requires that the penal institution have a well organized medical department equipped to modern standards and officered by competent physicians so that it may render all the necessary medical service. A venereally diseased prisoner must be intensively treated that he may not be a source of danger to those about him and that he may be saved from the ravages of syphilis which come on later in life in the form of locomotor ataxia, cerebral syphilis and paresis. The prison physicians must be competent to do surgery, so that all remedial defects may be cured. Very often the origin of crime itself lies in some physical defect, such as defective eyesight, stupidity from enlarged tonsils and adenoids and the dragging weight of an irritating hernia.

A department for the treatment of tuberculosis is absolutely necessary since great numbers of prisoners are sufferers from the "white plague." The weak undeveloped prisoner must have his body reconstructed, the muscular and nervous system restored to par; in fact the prison fails in its duty if the paroled or discharged prisoner does not go out of the institution physically better than when he came into it. The paroled and discharged men from the Indiana State Prison show an average increase of twelve pounds and I am certain that this physical improvement takes place in most of the penal institutions, at least in the modern ones, throughout the country.

Every prison and reformatory should have a psychopathic laboratory wherein the prisoners may be classified so that the administrative officers may deal with them intelligently. The insane, epileptic, feeble-minded, psychopathic and sexually pervert criminals must be segregated and separated from the prisoners of normal mentality. The mental capacities and abilities of the convicts must be discovered so that they may be assigned to the work for which they are best fitted and which is calculated to develop those qualities of mind and powers of the hand which will enable them to earn a livelihood after they have been discharged.

We now recognize that recreation plays an important part in the treatment of criminals. To better a man's moral nature it is neces-

sary first to effect a radical change in his physical condition. The question of recreation, mental and physical, so far as it relates to prison reform, is yet in its infancy. Indeed its importance is too little considered by those who have to do with the training of prisoners. It is strange then that as a factor in the prevention and cure of crime, which it seems to me is the only object for which penal and reformatory institutions are maintained, that recreation should have received such little attention in the past or that it should not come to the foreground now as a potent agency in the elimination of the causes of crime, as well as one of the important factors which help to solve the question of prison discipline.

Work in itself not hard, becomes so by being pressed day after day with unrelenting monotony. For men who spend the whole of every week day in unrelenting toil, very little good can be done for them by one hour's religious instruction on Sunday. Recognizing the need of mental and physical recreation it has been the policy of the Indiana State Prison to have ball games and military drill every Saturday afternoon in the summer and moving picture shows or vaudeville in the winter. There are four baseball teams made up of the inmates of the institution. It is indeed gratifying to the officials of the institution to see how much enjoyment and enthusiasm is displayed at one of these games. I do not believe any grandstand or bleachers on the outside are filled with more energetic and enthusiastic baseball fans than are the ones at Michigan City Prison. The men forget for the time being that they are surrounded by four great, high brick walls. This weekly privilege and recreation is sacredly guarded by the men and very few are the breaches of discipline committed at these periods of recreation.

Society in the past has subjected all the prisoners of the same institution to the same sort of treatment and failure was the inevitable result. The treatment in prison must be individualized and this cannot be done unless the offender is studied and understood by a psychopathologist. The mental surveys of prisoners in a psychopathic laboratory in a prison give a far clearer insight into the mental status of prisoners than is possible to be obtained in a court psychopathic laboratory. This is no fault of the last named laboratory. The difference lies in the opportunity for thorough examination. In the prison the psychiatrist and psychologist studies the criminals for months; the prisoner is no longer nervous because of his anxiety and apprehension about the outcome of his trial. No more he makes escapes

attention. While in confinement the prisoner is under constant observation during daylight hours and when he is asleep he is watched. With this constant method of examination and observation the mental status and needs are discovered and the necessary treatment instituted.

One of the greatest advances made in the treatment of the criminal in recent years was the enactment and enforcement of the indeterminate sentence laws in the various states of the union. When these laws were introduced they were met by a marked antagonism, especially on the part of the very conservative element of prison administrators. All sorts of arguments were brought to bear to prove that these laws were impractical and sentimental. The passage of time however has been sufficient to prove the falsity of these arguments. Hon. Amos W. Butler, Secretary, Board of State Charities of Indiana, has analyzed the workings of the indeterminate sentence and parole law which has been in operation for the past eighteen years in the state of Indiana. The following is an extract from his report:

"The Indiana institutions have kept careful records of their paroled prisoners, and in recent years have sent a summary to the Board of State Charities every six months. On April 1, 1915, we completed eighteen years' experience under the law. In that period 9,034 men and women were paroled. Of this number 5,422 observed faithfully the conditions of their release and were discharged; the maximum sentence of 459 expired during the parole period and they were free from further supervision; 154 died; 618 were still on parole and were making the required reports. This leaves 2,381 to be accounted for. They are the delinquents, the unsatisfactory cases. They constitute 26.3 per cent of the whole number paroled. Sixty per cent of the number paroled were young men under thirty years of age. The proportion of unsatisfactory cases among this class, 25.7 per cent, was less than among the women, 28.6 per cent, and the older men, 27.2 per cent. These men and women maintained themselves during the parole period, and at the time they ceased reporting had on hand or due them \$454,416.25, an average of \$50.30 each. It should be clearly understood that all that is claimed for these figures is that they are a record of results for the time the paroled prisoners were under supervision, which was in a few cases less than one year.

"In this connection has been noted a striking fact in regard to the number of commitments for felony in recent years, and the daily average population of our state penal institutions. The former is

INDIANA STATE PRISON

Table Showing Average Time Served Under Definite Sentence as Compared with Indeterminate Sentence

CRIMES	Num- ber Men	AVERAGE TIME SERVED											
		Definite Sentence 1890				Indeterminate Sentence 1900				Indeterminate Sentence 1906			
		Yrs.	Mos.	Days.		Yrs.	Mos.	Days.		Yrs.	Mos.	Days.	
Petit Larceny.....	110	1	2	10		1	11	26		2	5	6	
Grand Larceny.....	77	1	10	12		2	10	13		2	11	26	
Burglary.....	62	2	4	17		3	1	23		4	9	2	
Assault and Battery to Kill.....	14	2	11			2	6	1		3	6	2	
Forgery.....	11	2		27		2	2	23		2	8	10	
Receiving Stolen Goods.....	6		11			1	8	11		3	6	13	
Rape.....	6	2	3	10		3	1			3		9	
Perjury.....	4	1	10	22		2	2	22		2	2	19	
Manslaughter.....	4	1	9			4	4	18		2	6	10	
Arson.....	4	3	6	7		1	7	10		3	6	12	
False Pretense.....	4	1	6	7		1	9	20		2	6	9	
Incest.....	2	1	9			3	3	16		4	6		
Total.....	304	2		2		2	6	25		3	2	7	

less, the latter more, than when prisoners were sentenced for a definite time. Taking a period of twenty-one years, the ten preceding and the ten following the enactment of our indeterminate sentence law in 1897, I find a total of 7,539 commitments from 1887 to 1896, and a total of 6,632 commitments from 1898 to 1907, inclusive. They averaged 754 annually under the definite sentence, 663 annually under the indeterminate sentence. It means a decrease of 12 per cent annually in favor of the latter. It may be well to mention here that in the two decades from 1890 to 1910 the population of Indiana increased 23 per cent. That this increase in general population was accompanied by a decrease in prison commitments was probably not due wholly to the effects of the indeterminate sentence law, but it seems to me very significant.

"In the prison population, on the other hand, the increased average daily attendance is no less significant. Under the definite sentence, our courts measured out so much punishment for so much crime. Having served his time, the prisoner was free to go. Under the present system of indeterminate sentence with parole, accompanied as it is with efforts at reformation, the average length of sentence is markedly longer. We have found from a study of our State Prison records that 304 men committed beginning in 1890, for a definite time, served an average of two years and two months each. The average time served by the first 304 men committed after January 1, 1900, under the indeterminate sentence, for the same crimes, was six months and twenty-three days longer. The average time served by 304 men committed for the same crimes after January 1, 1906, was 1 year, 2 months, 5 days longer."

The indeterminate sentence laws are based upon the theory that they give the criminal the opportunity to choose between reformation and long imprisonment. I have found by actual experience that the habitual and professional criminals dislike the indeterminate sentence laws exceedingly since their past records generally enter into the consideration of their cases by the Parole Board when they apply for parole. Repeated offences against the law do not favorably impress the Board of Parole. To meet the situation the old offender in the majority of cases knows that the only hope he has for an early release is a record of good conduct, and he therefore deliberately sets about to impress the prison officials with his apparent reformation. The accidental criminal unused to the ways of prison life often loses a few merits of good behavior before he learns to peacefully adjust

himself to the rules of the prison. The prisoner who is serving his first sentence, unless his charge is a very serious one and unless he is mentally unfit, is released on parole at the expiration of the minimum sentence. While outside the prison he is still under control of the institution, and is subject to arrest if he violates the conditions of his parole agreement. After he has served a year's probation outside of the institution he is given his final discharge. This method of treating the criminal is similar to the parole of apparently recovered insane from state hospitals.

There are a few faults to be found with the indeterminate sentence law. The first objection offered against it is that it is expensive. This argument is usually answered by those who favor it by saying that the indeterminate sentence law was primarily enacted to save men, not money. The only real argument against the indeterminate sentence law is that it is not indeterminate enough; in fact there should be no maximum limit to the sentence. The indeterminate sentence could be made to include all penalties except capital punishment and life imprisonment. The chief defect of the indeterminate sentence law today lies in the fact that it is based upon the principle that all prisoners are mentally normal, and we know that this premise is not true. As an advisory member of the Board of Parole at the Indiana State Prison I have had ample opportunity to see the fault just mentioned. Under the operation of this law, all classes of mentally defective individuals, including the epileptic, insane and feeble-minded, have appeared before the Parole Board making their applications for release from prison after serving their minimum sentences or more, and they are often released by this board since this body had in many instances no other choice of action. The prison was full to overflowing and the hospital for insane criminals was crowded beyond its capacity. If the science of criminalistics continues to progress, and I am sure that it will, the indeterminate sentence laws must of necessity give way to indefinite sentence laws which for safety may have a minimum term. Under this new system no definite period of incarceration will be set. The criminal will be kept in the penal institution until he is cured of his criminal tendencies and safe to be released. Those prisoners who are so mentally defective or incorrigible that cure is impossible will be kept for the balance of their lives, that society may be protected.

It will be necessary under the indefinite sentence laws to have a board of properly trained experts who are capable of judging when

an individual should be returned to society. This board should be composed of the superintendent of the penal institution, who holds his position by reason of the fact that he is qualified; an attorney, trained in the science of criminology; an alienist, trained in psychology as well as in medicine, and who shall have had training in a prison as well as in a hospital for the insane; an educator, conversant with the problems of sociology; and the institutional physician, who is a psychiatrist and whose intimate experience and observation of the criminal enables him to render valuable information concerning the applicants for parole. This body of experts should be a board administered by the state and known as the State Board of Parole. It should have no official connection with the penal institutions, except in the case of the warden and physician, and should be entirely removed from the influence of politics.

In order that the idea of treatment of the criminal may be carried on to a successful conclusion, it will be necessary that the present character and general administration of our penal institutions be changed. No doubt for many years to come our prisons will continue to be filled with a heterogeneous group of the mentally normal, the mentally subnormal, the insane and the semi-insane, the feeble-minded, and the epileptic, the physically healthy, the tubercular, the venereally diseased, and the otherwise physically unfit. In the prison of the near future these various classes of individuals will be identified, classified, and properly segregated; the prisons will then cease to be simple, custodial abodes of those who have offended society, but they will become complex institutions, equipped with psychological laboratories, modern hospitals, schools of letters and manual training, sanitary workshops, where the prisoner will learn under kindly but firm discipline the truth of the scriptural injunction "In the sweat of thy brow, thou shalt eat bread," and that the privilege to live in extramural society shall depend upon the capacity to earn a decent, honest living at respectable labor. In brief, our prisons must become moral, orthopedic institutes for the physical, mental and ethical rehabilitation of criminal man.

In concluding this thesis it will be well to discuss very briefly the so-called honor system, which has within the last five years come into considerable prominence. Some prison wardens, who understand the art of newspaper advertising better than they do the problems of penology, have given the public very erroneous ideas about the self-government of criminals in penal institutions. If we were

to believe all the current statements given in newspapers and magazines by over enthusiastic but misguided prison reformers to be entirely accurate, we should believe that the trusting of prisoners is something entirely new. Such an idea is absolutely incorrect. Prisoners have been trusted and put on their honor in well conducted penal institutions for years. This was done without ostentation and newspaper publicity, long before an honor system was ever dreamed of in Sing Sing. Hundreds of prisoners have worked outside the prison walls at the Indiana State Prison for nearly twenty years but great care was exercised in selecting these men for positions of trust and honor. The prisoner's record was carefully investigated, his intelligence was considered, his prison record consulted and his general moral status noted. And as a result of this careful selection of these men there have been but very few escapes. At the present time there are one hundred men working on the prison honor farm, which is located about thirty miles from the prison. There is but one guard with these men and he spends his time superintending the farm activities. Occasionally there is an escape but in every instance save one these men have always been captured, and the capture means a doubling of the original sentence. The so-called honor and self-government systems are contrary to good sense and judgment. As has been shown, the greater number of prisoners are below par mentally. The indiscriminate application of the honor system to the general mass of prisoners is absurd and unreasonable. We cannot put moral imbeciles and mentally defective prisoners upon their honor and expect them to keep inviolate the prison rules. Mentally normal prisoners cannot be converted into men of honor by merely saying: "from henceforth I am going to trust you; you are now an honorable and trustworthy individual." The repeating of this presto-chango formula to a dyed-in-the-wool burglar is the veriest kind of moral quackery and nonsense. It is to be admitted that certain desperate criminals have formed personal attachments for a kind hearted warden and will, because of this hero worship, obey this individual's wishes and commands. But this attitude of mind on the part of the prisoner is not the result of reformation; it may be the result of pure selfishness on the part of the prisoner who sees an opportunity in the warden's weakness and vanity to secure his own ends. A dog may follow his master around but he still retains his canine disposition.

Self-government has not been an unqualified success in our universities, where were culture, education and moral training; it has fail-

ed in the military and naval academies, where a most powerful appeal is made to the students to conduct themselves as gentlemen and officers.

The authority of a penal institution must always remain in the hands of the officials of the institution. The prisoners of course are to be allowed certain privileges and liberties, and given reasonable trusts within due bounds. If the penal institution gives its inmates a kindly but firm, square deal discipline, there will be no clamoring among the prisoners for self-government. From a personal experience with prisoners covering several years, I have found that the vast majority of convicts do not even care to attempt self-government. They distrust themselves as well as one another. The fearful uprising which occurred recently in Illinois among prisoners was in an institution where the so-called honor system was in vogue.

Mr. Osborne, in his book, "Society and Prisons," shows that the total number of stab and incised wounds among prisoners in the year 1915 was seventy-one; this was under the government of the Mutual Welfare League. He believes this fact to be an evidence of the success of self-government among prisoners.

At the Indiana State Prison where the so-called honor and self-government systems have not been in vogue, the number of stab and incised wounds was but nine in seven years, and there has been no general uprising among the inmates in thirty years.

The failures of the so-called honor system have been hidden from the general public, but its apparent successes, which are not at all chargeable to the honor system, have been heralded broadcast; and some advocates of the self-government system have admitted this statement in personal interviews with successful prison men who practice intelligent, paternal government and square deal principles in the governing of criminals who have demonstrated their lack of capacity to govern themselves, or to respect the rights of others while they were living at liberty in the outside world.

THE STABILITY OF THE INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT

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It is sufficiently well known that the dividing line between definite feeble-mindedness and the borderline of mental deficiency has been drawn by Terman through the I. Q. value of 70. In view of the great body of evidence which has been forthcoming during the last few years, it is clear that this or any other dividing line cannot be used slavishly or mechanically, but serves rather the purpose of general orientation. That is, it serves to record our recognition of the fact that the great majority of the cases which fall below this line are, as a matter of fact, feeble-minded, and *vice versa*.

Now in practice we find occasionally that a young child has an I. Q. well above 70 and at the same time exhibits characteristics which cause the skilled diagnostician to believe that it will prove to be feeble-minded at a later time. Not infrequently this belief proves to be well founded not only according to other criteria of mental defect but according to psychological tests as well. Accordingly the belief has arisen in the minds of some of our diagnosticians the I. Q. of young children is likely to decrease with increasing age and that it is a good practice to take cognizance of this alleged fact in arriving at a diagnosis. And, if this belief were well founded, the fact would be of course of first rate importance.

It is the purpose of this article to discuss the logical presuppositions underlying this belief and to offer the experimental findings bearing on the problem which have accumulated at this institute. No attempt will be made to canvass the literature, but we shall avail ourselves of an interesting article by Wallin for a statement of the problem and for the presentation of some of the arguments.¹

The problem as Wallin sees it is as follows: "Does mental age retain a constant ratio to chronological age up to the age of mental maturity, or to age 16, or 15, or 14, so that an I. Q. of 50 signifies the same thing for a two year old or a six year old as for a 10, 14, or 16 year old?" And again: "Does the I. Q. value remain the same, as

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1. The Value of the Intelligence Quotient. Jour. Delinq. May 1919.

frequently affirmed, for the same individual throughout the period of his intellectual growth? In other words, can we ever, and if so under what conditions, prognosticate the future intellectual development of an individual purely on the basis of his I. Q. in early childhood?"²

Quoting verbatim, Wallin's answer is as follows: "While the differences between each successive chronological age is a constant difference (exactly one year), the difference between each successive mental age gradually (although not regularly) diminishes until it becomes imperceptible toward the period of mental maturity. At what point this slackening in mental growth begins and at what point it reaches its height, we cannot now say. But the result of the progress of slackening is that whereas the difference between each successive chronological age is constant the difference between each successive mental age diminishes, the *necessary*³ consequence of which would seem to be that the I. Q. exaggerates the mental retardation of youths and adults as compared with children."⁴ This amounts to saying, and Wallin does say elsewhere, that the I. Q. decreases with increasing chronological age.⁵ As we shall see this answer is based also on experimental evidence. It will be convenient however to discuss the logic of the situation first.

First of all let us note that the problem is stated somewhat ambiguously by Wallin. He asks "Does the I. Q. remain the same for the same individual throughout the period of his intellectual growth?" What evidence would be required before an affirmative answer could be made to this question? Clearly, it could never be proven from the fact that a number of re-examinations yield the same *average* I. Q. as the original examinations. It would be necessary to show that the I. Q. remains the same in each and every case for a large number of cases. A single well authenticated exception would prove that the I. Q. does not *necessarily* remain the same. And anyone at all familiar with the results of the re-examinations of abnormal children knows that such exceptions are by no means rare. I conclude that the problem is better stated by asking— does the I. Q. of any given individual *tend* to remain the same with increasing

2. *ibid.* p. 110.

3. Italics mine.

4. *ibid.* p. 121.

5. *ibid.* p. 122.

chronological age? What is the probability that it will change 5 points, or 10 points, or any other given number of points?

When the problem is thus stated it becomes possible to find a partial answer without resorting to experimental evidence. For if the scale according to which the I.Q. has been computed has been correctly standardized there will be no *general* tendency for the I.Q. to change with increasing chronological age. This follows at once from the fact that the average I.Q. of any given age group, such as all six year olds in the country, or of all the seven year olds, or of all the individuals of any other given age, will be 100, for that is the way the scale has been standardized. Consequently, if the I.Q.'s of some of the six year olds decrease during the period of one year, the I.Q.'s of some of the others *must* increase, for otherwise the average I.Q. of our six year olds could not be 100 when they have become seven year olds. Therefore, so far as we can reason from these premises (and so far only) the I. Q. of any given individual will not tend to decrease any more than it will tend to increase.

Wallin recognizes the logic of this argument. He says, — "It may be said in reply that no corrective formula is needed because the tests have been empirically standardized for each age, and therefore already compensate the law of diminishing mental growth. Moreover the I.Q. is itself a device for making the compensation... Although this seems to be mathematically correct, yet we find experimentally in all the classifications of our subjects a tendency of the I.Q. to fall as the chronological age rises..."⁶ I wish to say in reply that when fact comes into apparent conflict with mathematics or any other form of logic there is, usually, a flaw in the logic, an error in the facts, or a mistake in the premises. We shall find, I think, that the present case is not an exception to the rule.

It is clear that the existence of a type of individual whose I.Q. will tend to decrease would be entirely consistent with the above. Indeed, the question whether or no there is such a type is the only valid problem which remains. It may be, for example, that the I.Q. of individuals whose initial I.Q. is below 75 will tend to decrease with increasing age. If that were so, the total number of such individuals, when compared with the number of the entire population, would be so small that any compensating increase in the average I.Q. value of the rest of the population might well escape experimen-

6. *ibid.* p. 122.

tal verification. Or it may be that the I.Q. of the "unstable" type of personality will tend to decrease with increasing age. But it will be just as well for us to be clear on the point that it is only in the first case, i.e. when the I.Q. is below 75, that we will be considering a *general* property of the I.Q., or, better, a property of the I.Q. which enables us to predict changes in the I.Q. on the basis of mental and chronological age only. In the second case, that of the unstable type it would be not a property of the I.Q. but a characteristic of a type of personality which we would be considering. It would be some characteristic of the individual other than the psychometric index of intelligence which would furnish the basis for the prognosis that deterioration will take place.

The most plausible *a priori* argument which has been advanced to show that there is such a type of individual is a variation of Wallin's argument. The writer is unable to give references, but the best form of the argument which he has seen (or perhaps heard) is somewhat as follows.—The feeble-minded are known to approach as a limit a mental age less than that of normal individuals. Therefore, once that limit has been reached, their I.Q.'s *must* decrease.—There is however an unproven implicit assumption in this argument, viz. that the feeble-minded reach their mental limit more quickly than the normal. For it is obvious that previous to the time that the limit is reached, the limit has no *logical* connection with the *rate* of development, and after the limit has been reached the I.Q. will decrease only if the denominator of the fraction "mental age-divided by chronological age" increases. But if the feeble-minded reach their limit at the same chronological age as the normal (16 years according to Terman), the denominator becomes constant. It is entirely possible that some or all of the feeble-minded reach their mental limit before the chronological age of 16, but, so far as I can see, that it is not a necessary consequence of any of the properties of the I.Q.

It remains to examine the experimental evidence offered by Wallin in support of his position. Wallin took 411 (?) consecutive cases examined by him in St. Louis and arranged them in groups such as idiots, imbeciles, morons, etc. He then subdivided each group according to the I. Q. rating, and showed the average chronological age corresponding to each of these I. Q. groups. The table in which his results are exhibited is reproduced in full on account of certain points of methodological interest which will appear.

DISTRIBUTION OF INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS FOR 411 CONSECUTIVE ST. LOUIS CASES, BASED ON THE STANFORD BINET-SIMON SCALE

(Reprinted from the *Journal of Delinquency*, IV-3, May 1919. p. 120)

I.Q.	I		II		III		IV		V		VI		VII		VIII		IX		X		XI		XII	
	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.	N.	Av.
.17	-----	1 12.25	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.21	to .27	-----	5 13.98	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.30	to .34	-----	3 10.83	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.35	to .39	-----	2 11.99	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1 5.50	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.40	to .44	-----	10 12.06	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.45	to .49	-----	9 11.15	-----	1 13.83	11 12.22	-----	-----	2 12.91	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.50	to .54	-----	8 10.99	-----	2 13.87	11 11.55	-----	-----	10 13.57	-----	-----	-----	1 9.83	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.55	to .59	-----	10 9.19	-----	4 12.93	12 11.64	-----	-----	15 12.66	-----	-----	-----	2 8.45	2 15.58	4 12.01	1 16.75	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.60	to .64	-----	3 8.83	-----	10 10.08	20 9.64	-----	-----	21 12.13	-----	2 10.25	12 10.06	6 12.88	18 11.00	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.65	to .69	-----	2 8.20	-----	11 10.54	14 10.12	-----	-----	14 11.94	-----	1 7.16	33 10.16	20 11.49	53 10.66	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.70	to .74	-----	-----	-----	5 8.56	7 8.46	-----	-----	1 9.00	-----	-----	14 9.24	37 11.14	51 10.62	7 11.16	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.75	to .79	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	4 9.31	2 9.58	23 10.06	25 10.06	17 11.48	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.80	to .84	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	12 10.11	21 11.08	1 11.75	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.85	to .89	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	17 10.66	3 13.80	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.90	to .94	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1 8.08	-----	-----	-----	2 9.16	12 10.88	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
.95	to .99	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	1 5.41	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
1.01	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
1.03	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
N.	Number of cases	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
I.	Idiots	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
II.	Imbeciles	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
III.	Potential morons	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
IV.	Imbeciles (potential morons)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
V.	Morens	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
VI.	Diagnosis deferred	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
VII.	Potential feeble-minded	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
VIII.	Borderline	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
IX.	Borderline (potential feeble-minded)	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
X.	Backward	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
XI.	Retarded	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
XII.	Normal	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Upon a superficial examination the table seems to bear out Wallin's contention. In nearly every column the chronological age decreases quite clearly and fairly consistently as the I. Q. increases. But upon a closer examination one is struck with certain peculiarities. For example the oldest individual in the group (so far as one can tell from the table) is 16.75 years old and has the lowest I. Q. in the "backward" group (column X.); but that I. Q. (between 55 and 59) is very far from being the lowest I. Q. in the entire group. Again, the two next oldest individuals are 15.58 years old and have the lowest I. Q. in the "borderline" group (column VIII.); but again, their I. Q., again between 55 and 59, is very far from being the lowest I. Q. in the entire group. The striking position of these cases at the head of their respective columns is due therefore not so much to any relation between the I. Q. and chronological age as to the fact that these cases have been grouped as backward and borderline respectively. If the I. Q. had been compared with chronological age regardless of these classifications these cases would not have appeared at the head of any column; they would have served to increase the low average age values corresponding to I. Q.'s between 55 and 59 in the columns further to the left. In order to see the relation of the I. Q. to chronological age regardless of these classifications I computed from Wallin's table the average chronological age corresponding to Wallin's I. Q. groups. The results will be found in Table I.

TABLE I.

<i>Number of Cases</i>	<i>I. Q.</i>	<i>Chronological Age</i>
1	17	12.25
5	21-27	13.98
3	30-34	10.88
3	35-39	9.83
22	40-44	12.22
24	45-49	11.66
35	50-54	12.14
64	55-59	10.75
87	60-64	10.96
185	65-69	10.54
110	70-74	10.64
71	75-79	10.34
46	80-84	10.59
20	85-89	11.06
15	90-94	10.06
6	95-99	9.80
1	101	10.00
1	108	7.83
Total	649	

The first thing which challenges our attention is that the total number of cases contained in this table is 649, whereas Wallin's table, we are told, shows us the distribution of the I.Q.'s of 411 cases. However, on account of other points of methodological interest, we may continue our examination of this evidence assuming that 649 is the correct number of cases. Our Table I. still shows decreasing age with increasing I.Q., although the decrease is decidedly less striking than in the original table, especially if we consider only the I.Q. groups in which there are 20 or more cases. Now, so far as we can judge from Wallin's table, it would seem to be a fact that Wallin has given (I do not say *tends to give*) more favorable classifications to the older individuals. Either he has been led to do so by the bias (unconscious no doubt) that the I.Q. decreases with increasing chronological age, or else he has not been led by this bias. If the former has been the case, it is of course bad logic to put our conclusions into our premises⁷. If on the other hand bias has not been a factor, the fact still remains that these classifications are not essential to the consideration of the problem with which we are dealing, and, if the disappearance of the striking features of the decrease of chronological age when these classifications are omitted cannot be explained by unconscious bias, its explanation constitutes a problem separate and distinct from the main issue. In any event, Table I is a way of exhibiting the relation of the I.Q. to chronological age free from the possible objection of conscious bias.

It would have been desirable to show Wallin's experimental findings in the more adequate form of a correlation table and to compute the coefficient of correlation of chronological age to the I.Q. That however is impossible on account of the form which Wallin has chosen to give to his material. The most that can be done is to calculate the artificial coefficient which results from his table and to show *that the true coefficient is necessary lower in value*. The reason for that is

7. With reference to the question of unconscious bias it may be of interest to state that Wallin made the psychological examinations himself and arrived at his classifications knowing the chronological age, the mental age, and certain other facts. He states that he did not have any conscious I. Q. standards in mind, and that the I. Q. was computed after the classification had been made. I may remark that knowledge of the chronological and mental age is scarcely equivalent to ignorance of the I. Q. Assuming a fair degree of facility at mental arithmetic, a fairly accurate impression of the magnitude of the I. Q. is very likely to arise in the mind without conscious effort, especially if the diagnostician has positive views about the relation of the I. Q. to chronological age.

that whereas the cases are grouped within comparatively narrow I. Q. limits (as they should be), they are not grouped at all with reference to age. Take for example the 53 cases classed as *borderline potential feeble-minded*⁸ with I. Q.'s between 65 and 69 and with an average age of 10.66. In a correlation table the age of these cases would have been defined not only by the average age but also by narrow limits, e.g. by the statement that the age is 10 years or more and less than 11 years. In Wallin's table we are given no information at all about the age limits and it may be, for aught we know that some of these 53 cases are at the extreme limits of the entire table, viz. 5 and 19 years.⁹ The *necessary consequence* of this state of affairs is that the coefficient of correlation computed on the basis of this table will have a greater value than the true value¹⁰.

The factitious value of the coefficient of correlation of the I. Q. to chronological age which can be calculated from Wallin's table was found by me to be -0.38. We may gain some idea of the magnitude of the true coefficient by considering the magnitude of the standard deviation of the age distribution which results from Wallin's table, viz. 1.17 years. Inasmuch as the range of the table is 14 years it will be apparent at once to any one familiar with the properties of biometric constants that this value of the standard deviation is strikingly small. As a rule a range of 6 times the standard deviation includes more than 99 percent of the cases¹¹ whereas 14 years is 12 times the standard deviation. If now we assume that the true standard deviation is 2.34, i.e. double the factitious value, the coefficient of correlation will become -0.19. We can be reasonably certain at any rate that -0.19 is nearer to the true value than -0.38.

The probable error of such a coefficient would be about 0.034. It seems therefore that there is a small but valid negative correlation between the I. Q. and chronological age for the cases examined by Wallin. But even if the explanation advanced by him were the only possible explanation, the correlation is so slight that it should not be taken into account for diagnostic purposes. However, as Wallin admits, his explanation is not the only one possible. Indeed, when

8. Column IX.

9. *ibid.* p. 113.

10. In the formula for the Pearson coefficient of correlation, Wallin's table would yield the same value for the numerator of the fraction as a true correlation table, but the denominator would necessarily be smaller.

11. cf. Yule: *Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, p. 140.

we consider that Wallin's cases form a highly selected group by virtue of the very fact that they have been referred to him for examination, it becomes highly improbable that it is the correct explanation. Consider for example the case of the one idiot, 12.25 years old, with an I.Q. of 17. Surely that individual has been an idiot throughout his life, and the only valid question with reference to him would be why he has not been referred for examination at an earlier time. Perhaps his parents were willing and able to take care of him up to this time. Or perhaps they did not know of the facilities of the state for caring for such unfortunates. And similar considerations are probably in order if we consider the five imbeciles with I.Q.'s between 21 and 27 and an average age of 13.98. Surely, the advanced age of such individuals in conjunction with their low I.Q. is not to be explained by a tendency of the I.Q. to decrease with advancing age, *but by the circumstances which led to their being examined* at a more advanced age than the younger and more intelligent individuals. And, if conditions in St. Louis are at all like conditions here, the most plausible explanation would seem to be that troublesome and delinquent children are referred more promptly than harmless stupid children.¹²

Summing up the ground we have been over, it seems that we are justified in the conclusion that neither the facts nor the arguments we have examined so far justify the conclusion that there is a type of individual whose I.Q. tends to decrease with increasing age. However, as we have seen, Wallin's experimental data have at best only an indirect bearing on the issue. As he points out, the re-examination after an interval of the same individuals is the direct mode of attack. Therefore, although the evidence which has accumulated at this institute is not very conclusive, I shall present it for what it may be worth.

It is difficult to state with precision the factors which led to the selection of cases for re-examination. I am informed by our present psychologists that the greater number of re-examinations asked for by them consist of cases whose I.Q. is between 70 and 80 regardless of the prognosis; that in a smaller number of cases the I.Q. is above 80 but there is reason to believe that the individual has reached the

¹² In my article "A Note on the Significance of Nocturnal Enuresis", (Jour. Delinq. Mar. 1920) I have found a positive correlation between intelligence and delinquency or the feeble-minded patients of the institute.

limit of his mental development; and that the smallest number consists of cases with I.Q.'s below 70 where there is reason to believe that they will improve. However the majority of cases considered in the present paper were not re-examined at the request of the psychologists now here. Re-examinations are recommended by the psychiatrists and the psychologists, and occasionally cases are brought in for re-examination without any recommendation on our part. As a matter of fact 31 of the re-examined cases had initial I.Q.'s above 80; then there were 29 with I.Q.'s between 70 and 80 inclusive; and 9 had I.Q.'s below 70. So far as one can judge from the I.Q.'s it would seem that in the greater number of cases re-examination was recommended because it was thought that the I.Q. of the individual would deteriorate, and that is my own impression based on personal acquaintance with the different individuals who requested re-examinations.

The cases considered include all those re-examined at this institute except that a number had to be omitted for technical reasons. If, for example, the original examination had been made with the Binet 1911 scale and the re-examination by the Stanford scale it was thought best to omit the case rather than attempt corrections of dubious value. There remained 69 cases. Some of these were examined and re-examined by the Stanford scale, others by the Binet 1911. On account of the small number of cases and for other reasons which will appear it seemed useless to try to differentiate between the two scales. On the other hand the interval between examination and re-examination was only 10.25 months on the average, so that there was little reason for anticipating any difficulty on account of the inaccuracies of the 1911 scale. Besides there were only 13 cases re-examined by the 1911 scale.

The psychological examinations were made by 6 different psychologists. Only 14 cases were re-examined by the psychologist who made the original examination. Some of the cases were given more than one re-examination, but, except for the purpose of comparing the results when the same examiner made both examinations against those where the examiner and the re-examiner were different persons only one re-examination was used in the present study, so that each re-examination represents an individual. In the case of multiple re-examinations, the first preference was given to re-examinations made by the original examiner. Otherwise the re-examination made after the longest interval of time was selected.

In order to give the reader at least some basis for judging what

influence the above facts may have had on our results, the I. Q. changes for each condition are tabulated in Table II.

TABLE II.

	<i>Number of cases</i>	<i>Interval (month)</i>	<i>1st. I. Q.</i>	<i>2nd. I. Q.</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Difference</i>
Same Examiner	14	7.5	79.64	78.86	-0.78	
Different Exam.	59	11.0	80.00	81.45	1.45	2.23
Binet 1911	13	11.8	75.85	77.08	1.23	
Stanford	56	9.9	81.45	81.61	0.15	1.38

(4 individuals were given re-examinations both by the same and by different examiners. This accounts for the fact that there are 73 cases in this comparison and only 69 in the Stanford-Binet 1911 comparison.)

It will be seen that the "examiner" comparison shows a difference of 2.23 points. The probable error of this difference is 1.194. The chances are therefore roughly four to one that this difference is due to individual differences of the different examiners. If the case had been reversed, if there had been 59 re-examinations made by the same examiners, I would have omitted the 14 cases examined by different persons on the basis of this evidence. As it was I decided to combine them into a single group. Besides, after all, re-examinations are frequently made by different examiners in practice, so that the figures have a certain degree of practical utility on that account. The difference shown by the Stanford-Binet 1911 comparison is 1.38 points with a probable error of 1.650 points. The probability that this difference is due to chance and not to anything in either of the two scales is roughly one to one. Inasmuch as that is very far from proving that the nature of the scale did not make a difference, it might have been better to omit the 13 Binet cases. However that was not done. It will be obvious that probably no large error was caused, if indeed any error at all was introduced in this way.

The results for the group of the 69 cases described are as follows:

<i>Number of cases</i>	<i>Interval (months)</i>	<i>Age Average</i>	<i>1st. I. Q.</i>	<i>2nd. I. Q.</i>	<i>Change</i>	<i>Probable Error of Change</i>
69	10.246	11.604	80.391	80.754	0.363	0.5404

For all of the 69 cases we observe an average change in the I. Q. of 0.363 points, and the probable error of this change is 0.5404 points. It follows that a change as large as the one observed would have arisen as a chance fluctuation of sampling 65 times out of 100 even though there were no tendency of the I. Q. to change. It seems

therefore that the I. Q. of the re-examined patients of this institute exhibits no specific tendency to change.

It may be however that the younger or the less intelligent patients will tend to deteriorate, and that this tendency is balanced by a compensating tendency of the older or of the more intelligent patients to improve. Or the reverse might be the case. In order to investigate this possibility I computed the coefficient of the correlation of the amount and the direction of the change with the chronological age, and also with the initial I. Q. of the patient. The Age-Change correlation was found to be -0.03 with a probable error of 0.081. There is therefore a fairly strong presumption in favor of the view that the tendency of the I. Q. to change has nothing to do with the age of the individual (within the age limits of this investigation, 4 to 18 years). The I. Q. -Change correlation was found to be -0.145 with a probable error of 0.08. There is therefore a very slight presumption in favor of the view that the I. Q. of the less intelligent patients will tend to improve, and that of the more intelligent to deteriorate, but the presumption is too slight to be admitted as evidence.

There is another question asked by Wallin on which these re-examinations throw a certain amount of light. The question was, we may recall, — “... can we ever, and if so under what conditions, prognosticate the future intellectual development of an individual purely on the basis of his I. Q. in early childhood?” If we restate the question and ask *with how great accuracy* we can predict the future I. Q. of an individual from his present I. Q., the correlation of the initial I. Q. with the I. Q. found upon re-examination will have some bearing on the question. That correlation was found by me to be +0.82 with a probable error of 0.027. (If all the examinations had been made by the same examiner the correlation doubtless would have been higher.) Computing the regression equation, we obtain, $y = 0.9085x + 7.719$, where x is the initial I. Q. and y the I. Q. we may expect to find 10 months later. Tabulating a few values computed by means of this equation, we find:

<i>Initial I. Q.</i>	<i>After 10 months</i>
100	98.6
90	89.5
80	80.4
70	71.3
60	62.2
50	53.1

It will be noted that the high I.Q.'s decrease and that the low I. Q.'s increase. That however is not due to a peculiar characteristic of the I. Q., but arises from the general properties of any two variables, provided their coefficient of correlation is less than one, and provided their standard deviations are equal, or nearly so, as is the case for our two variables. Under such circumstances the coefficient of regression will be less than one, and a mean deviation from the mean in one variable will be associated with a smaller mean deviation from the mean in the other variable, e. g. if we had found the regression equation for estimating from the second I. Q. what the I. Q. of any individual was, or would have been, 10 months previous, we would have observed again that the high I. Q.'s decrease and the low I. Q.'s increase. The meaning of this is simply that the more extremely the I. Q. of an individual deviates from the average of his group, the more likely it is that the deviation has been somewhat less extreme in the past and will be somewhat less extreme in the future. In other words, deviations tend to regress toward the mean¹³.

In spite of its paradoxical sound, this is really sound common sense. Consider for example that you have seen a man run the second heat of a hundred yard dash in 9 3-5 seconds. The chances are that he has run the first heat very fast, but slower than the second. And the chances are that he will run the next heat very fast but more slowly than the second. Or, more generally, the faster he has run the second heat, the more likely it is that he has run the first more slowly and will also run the next more slowly. Or, quite generally, the more an individual deviates from the mean, the more likely it is that he has deviated less in the past and will deviate less in the future.

If the reader will carefully examine this argument, he will find the reasoning to be valid even when the deviation from the mean is not extreme. He must be careful however not to go beyond the evidence, and he must remember that the evidence is a single performance stated as a deviation from a given mean. Suppose for example that the second heat has been run in 11 seconds and that the average man can run 100 yards in 12 seconds. *On that evidence* the conclusion would be that the next heat will probably be run more slowly. But if 11 seconds is stated as a deviation from the average performance of the average *sprinter* (say 10 2-5 seconds), the conclusion would be that the next heat will probably be run faster. The

13. Hence the name *regression equation*.

reasoning from the evidence is valid in either case. The value of the evidence is another story.

The probable error of estimate of the I.Q. values found by means of our regression equation is 3.988 or roughly 4 points. Applying this to the initial I.Q. of 100, that means that after 10 months the average I.Q. of all the patients now having I.Q.'s of 100 will be 98.6 and that half of them will be within the limits 94.6 and 102.6. In other words while 98.6 is the proper estimate, the chances that the error of estimate made in the case of any one individual will be greater than 4 points are equal to the chances that this error will be less than 4 points. Similarly the chances that the error will exceed 8 points are 1:4.5; that it will exceed 12 points, 1:21, etc.

Summing up, our conclusions are that, for patients of this institute there is no tendency of the I.Q. to deteriorate. This conclusion appears to be true regardless of the age or of the I.Q. of the patient. However the I.Q. is quite likely to change either in one direction or the other. The measure of the amount and of the probability of the change is the probable error of estimate of the regression equation, as shown above.

These conclusions are of course subject to the same criticisms as the data on which they are based. I realize just how serious these criticisms are. The paper is published because the conclusions are after all, precisely the conclusions which common sense would reach, and also in the hope that the work may have a certain methodological value by giving still another illustration of the application of standard methods to the variable data of psychology and psychiatry.

Author's Note: I take pleasure in acknowledging the aid of Mr. C. M. Larcomb in the compilation of the experimental data for this report.—Curt Rosenow.

SUCCESS RECORD OF DELINQUENT BOYS IN RELATION TO INTELLIGENCE

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That the degree of intelligence is relatively prognostic of success in various lines of endeavor among school children and others has recently been contended and demonstrated. Terman (5, p. 158) states that "if schools were careful to grade children according to mental age, it would be possible, knowing a child's I. Q.¹, to predict in what grade the child would be found at any given time in the future." Even with the "constant tendency of teachers to promote children by age rather than by ability, the I. Q. nevertheless offers a fairly serviceable basis for predicting a child's later school progress," indicated by a detailed study of the record of school children and the progress that might have been expected by interpretation of intelligence examinations given several years previous. Williams (7, p. 17) has said that "it is reasonable to expect that the level of intelligence expressed in terms of age standards will eventually become the foundation for all pedagogical and vocational training." In a study of intelligence as a factor in vocational progress, Cowdery (1, p. 237) found that there was a distinct relation between "ability to progress in learning under conditions of supervised vocational instruction and the degree of native general intelligence."

However, few investigations have been made to determine the extent to which intelligence and social or vocational achievement are correlated. Pintner and Reamer (4, p. 19) in a study of mental ability and success record of 26 delinquent girls state that, as far as their group was concerned, mental tests were not necessarily prognostic of success. The following study presents data concerning the relation between general intelligence and success record of 301 boys who have been paroled, furloughed, or discharged from Whittier State School. This group includes all those who were released during the *biennium* of July 1, 1916 to June 30, 1918 and all those who were on parole from the School at the beginning of the period.

Two hundred and forty-seven of the 301 boys had been given men-

1. Intelligence quotient, - the ratio of mental age, determined by intelligence test, to chronological age.

tal examinations by Dr. J. Harold Williams, clinical psychologist, using the Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Scale. Those not examined had left the school prior to the establishment of the department of research in October, 1915, hence would not affect the distribution for comparative purposes.

Data concerning the specific occupations, social response, conduct, etc., of the group were accumulated by members of the department of research and have been tabulated and analyzed². In determining the record of success, the classification used by Merrill (3), superintendent of the Minnesota State Public School, was adopted. His definitions of terms are as follows:

1. *Doing well*. "Those who have developed into men....of good character and are fulfilling the requirements of good citizenship, and the minor wards who are developing normally, meeting the requirements of good homes, and giving promise of success."

2. *Doing fairly well*. "Those who have been less successful or who are not developing satisfactorily but who have become or give promise of becoming at least self-supporting, respectable citizens."

3. *Doing poorly*. "Those who are regarded in the community where they live as undesirable citizens or who do not give promise of becoming useful."

The boys had been away from the School various lengths of time ranging from one month to seven years, averaging about two years. Their ages varied from 15 to 22 years, averaging about 18 years. Each boy's success record and occupation were given as it appeared on June 30, 1918, the end of the biennial period. However, in deciding to which of the three success record groups—doing well, doing fairly well, and doing poorly—any boy belonged, it was necessary to consider his conduct and vocational record for a period of time sufficient to determine the degree of success he had attained. Adequate data for classification of 43 of the 301 boys were not obtained, due principally to their having been discharged from the School and no information being available concerning their present condition. Twenty-four of this group having received a mental examination, there remain 223 boys concerning whom we have both a success record and intelligence classification.

The range of intelligence for the group was from I.Q. 47 to I.Q. 122. In general, those testing below I.Q. 75 usually considered as feeble-minded; those between 75 and 82, borderline; between 82 and

² The specific occupations or location, details concerning classification of each boy, together with a summary of data concerning the present study appear in the Fourteenth Biennial Report of the Whittier State School, 1916-1918. pp. 96-114.

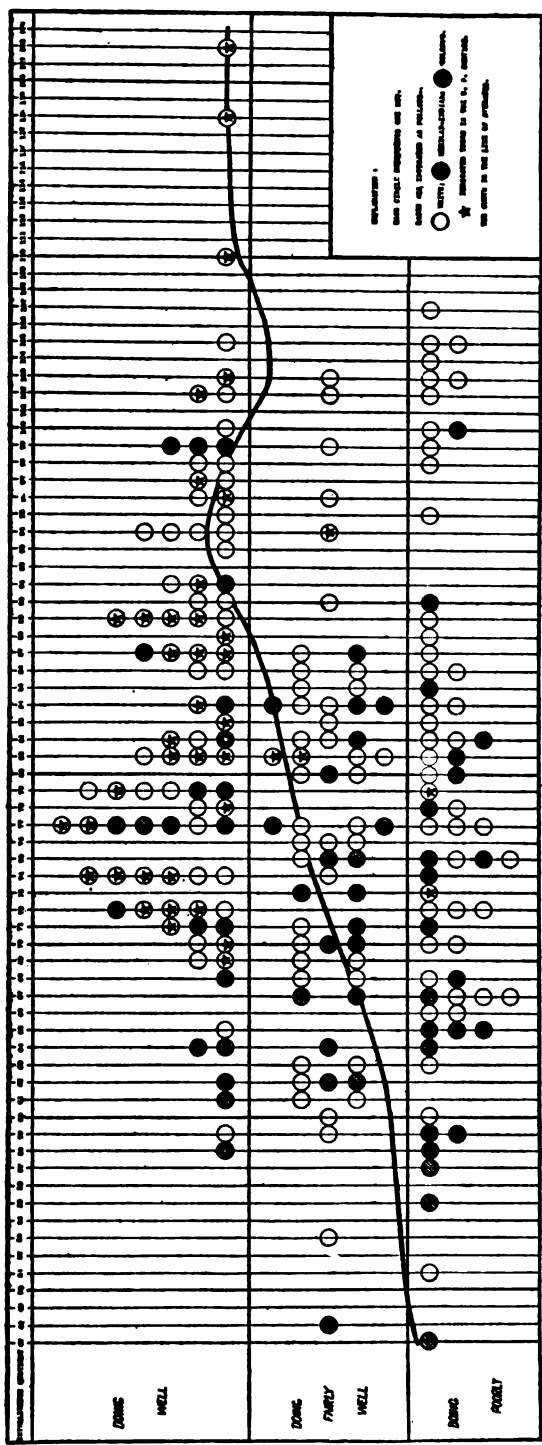


Fig. 1. Success record classification and intelligence quotient groups, showing also the line of averages indicating the relation between intelligence and success for 223 cases, (Reprinted from *Fourteenth Biennial Report, Whittier State School, 1918, p.109.*)

92, dull-normal; between 92 and 110, average-normal; and those 110 and above, superior.

Table I gives a distribution of the 223 cases by social intelligence groups and by success record. Of the 90 boys who were doing well, 3.3 per cent were of superior intelligence; 22.2 per cent, average-normal; 22.2 per cent, dull-normal; 25.6 per cent, borderline; and 26.7 per cent, feeble-minded. Of those doing fairly well, none were superior; 7.6 per cent, average-normal; 22.8 per cent, dull-normal; 33.3 per cent, borderline; and 26.3 per cent, feeble-minded. Of those doing poorly, none were of superior intelligence; 17.8 per cent, average-normal; 13.5 per cent, dull-normal; 25.4 per cent, borderline; and 43.3 per cent, feeble-minded. Thus, it is evident that there is a distinct tendency for the boys of higher intelligence to have a better record of success than those of lower mentality.

TABLE I. SUCCESS RECORD OF 223 BOYS BY SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE GROUPS

	Total		Doing well		Doing fairly well		Doing poorly	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Superior	3	1.3	3	3.3	—	0.0	—	0.0
Average-normal	37	16.6	20	22.2	5	7.6	12	17.8
Dull-normal	44	19.8	20	22.2	15	22.8	9	13.5
Borderline	62	27.8	23	25.6	22	33.3	17	25.4
Feeble-minded	77	34.5	24	26.7	24	36.3	29	43.3
Total	223	100.0	90	100.0	66	100.0	67	100.0

This same tendency is shown by a different distribution of the same cases in Fig. 1. In this figure each circle represents one boy; its position with reference to the numbers at the top represents the boy's I.Q.; its location with reference to the success record classification indicates to which success group he belongs. The positive correlation is shown by the upward trend of the line of averages, which was obtained by smoothing a line connecting the median cases using five I.Q. groups as a unit; i.e., the median of I.Q.'s 70 to 74, 75 to 79, etc.

Table II indicates success record and the general occupational grouping of those regularly employed using the United States Census (6) classification of occupations. The kind of employments indicated by each general heading are as follows:

- I. *Agriculture, forestry and animal husbandry*—farmers, dairymen, fishermen foresters, etc.
- II. *Extraction of minerals*—miners, oil well operatives, etc.

III. *Manufacturing and mechanical industries*—mechanics, tailors, bakers, carpenters, etc.

IV. *Transportation*—chauffeurs, teamsters, railway laborers, etc.

V. *Trade*—retail dealers, bankers, real estate agents, etc.

VI. *Public service (not elsewhere classified)*—soldiers, sailors, policemen, firemen, etc.

VII. *Professional service*—physicians, lawyers, teachers, artists, etc.

VIII. *Domestic and personal service*—servants, waiters, laundry operatives, barbers, etc.

IX. *Clerical occupations*—collectors, office boys, clerks, etc.

TABLE II. OCCUPATIONAL GROUP AND SUCCESS RECORD,—
BY NUMBER AND PER CENT

		Total	Doing well	Doing fairly well	Doing poorly
Extraction of minerals	No.	4	4	—	—
	Per cent	100.0	100.0	0.0	0.0
Public (U.S.) service	No.	58	51	5	2
	Per cent	100.0	88.0	8.5	3.5
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	No.	30	11	17	2
	Per cent	100.0	36.6	56.7	6.7
Clerical occupations	No.	11	7	3	1
	Per cent	100.0	63.7	27.2	9.1
Domestic and personal service	No.	19	7	10	2
	Per cent	100.0	36.3	51.2	10.5
Manufacturing and mechani- cal industries	No.	46	21	20	5
	Per cent	100.0	45.7	33.4	10.9
Transportation	No.	12	3	7	2
	Per cent	100.0	25.0	58.3	16.7
Trade	No.	—	—	—	—
Professional service	No.	—	—	—	—
Total	No.	180	104	62	14
	Per cent	100.0	57.8	34.4	7.8

Fifty-six of the 301 boys were in various institutions, such as industrial schools, homes for feeble-minded, jails, etc; 65 were unclassified because of having been discharged and no information being obtainable, or being dead, out of the United States, attending school, etc. There remained 180 boys employed in various occupations.

The general vocational groups are arranged in Table II in order of proportion doing well or fairly well. Of the 180 boys, only 7.8 per cent were doing poorly, while 57.8 per cent were doing well, and 34.4 per cent were doing fairly well. By comparing these percentages

with the figures for the whole group including those in institutions and others as shown in Table I,—90, or 40.4 per cent doing well; 66, or 29.6 per cent doing fairly well; and 67, or 30.0 per cent doing poorly—it is seen that those on parole and employed have a relatively high degree of success.

Table III gives the intelligence quotients of the 151 boys examined and engaged in the various occupations. Discussion of the intelligence level of those employed in the specific occupational groups will be made in connection with the data given in Table IV, which gives the coefficients of correlation between success record and intelligence level as indicated by the I. Q.³ The letter *f* refers to the frequency or number of cases, *r* indicates the coefficient of correlation by Pearson's formula for each group, and P.E. shows the probable error. For all occupational groups a positive correlation of .19 is found⁴, thus indicating that there is a definite tendency for boys of a higher mentality to succeed, but it is not as marked as is usually assumed and seems to indicate other factors, probably including tem-

TABLE III. OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS AND INTELLIGENCE LEVELS AS INDICATED BY INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS

	Total	Not tested	Total tested	40-49	50-59	60-69	70-79	80-89	90-99	100-109	110-119	120-129
Minerals	4	1	3	—	—	—	2	1	—	—	—	—
U. S. Service	58	9	49	—	1	2	18	18	5	2	2	1
Agriculture, etc.	30	8	22	1	—	5	11	2	3	—	—	—
Clerical	11	2	9	—	—	—	—	2	4	3	—	—
Domestic service	19	4	15	1	—	1	4	5	3	1	—	—
Mfg., mech. ind.	46	5	41	—	1	8	14	6	10	2	—	—
Transportation	2	0	12	—	1	5	1	5	—	—	—	—
Trade	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Professional Service	0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	180	29	151	2	3	21	50	39	25	8	2	1

3. The use of I.Q. as an index of intelligence for this group is justified by the fact that all cases in the vocational groups were 16 years of age or over. See Doll (2, p. 67 ff.). To obtain the approximate mental age of any group use the I. Q. as the percentage ratio of mental age to 16; e. g., I. Q. 50 indicates mental age of 8 years. In this study it has been necessary to assume the constancy of the I. Q. This assumption is justified by data given by Terman (5, p. 142) who has found a correlation of .933 between earlier and later tests.

4. A coefficient of correlation of .19 was also found for the whole group, including those in institutions. This was given in Biennial Report (*ibid.* footnote p. 110) but through a typographical error the correlation appeared as 1.9.

peramental qualities, emotional control and degree of supervision afforded, have an important bearing on the degree of success.

Extraction of minerals. Only four boys were engaged in this occupational group and all were succeeding. The intelligence of the three boys examined was about average for the whole group.

TABLE IV. COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN SUCCESS RECORD AND INTELLIGENCE LEVEL, BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Group	f	r	P.E.
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	22	.74	.065
Public (U. S.) service	49	.15	.094
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	41	.03	.096
Clerical occupations	9	-.07	.224
Domestic and personal service	15	-.23	.164
Transportation	12	-.51	.144
Total	148	.19	.053

Public service (not elsewhere classified). This group includes 58 boys who were in the United States service as soldiers, sailors, or marines. The median intelligence was slightly higher than the average for all cases. The coefficient of correlation was found to be .15 (P.E. .094) indicating only a slight positive relationship between intelligence and success in United States service.

Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry. Those included under this heading were mostly engaged in farming and ranching. The average intelligence was the same as for all cases. The coefficient of correlation was .74 (P.E. .065), showing a definite positive correlation between the intelligence and the degree of success of this group. Although there were only 22 cases examined and classified, they were unselected as far as intelligence and success record were concerned. If the implications of this distribution are to be considered, the underlying theory and practice of considering farm homes and employment as especially suitable for low mentality cases should be modified. However, for all those engaged in agriculture, a relatively high proportion of successes is shown by Table II.

Clerical occupations. Those included in this group were delivery boys, clerks, and salesmen. The average mentality was higher than for any other group and the proportion of successes was next lower than for the agricultural group. A correlation of -.07 (P.E. .224) is shown indicating that there was practically no evident relation

between the degree of success and intelligence for this small group.

Domestic and personal service. The occupations classified under this heading included cooks, janitors, waiters, laundry workers, barbers, etc. The intelligence of the group averaged slightly higher than the median for all cases, although there is a wide range distribution. For the 15 cases given mental examinations, a coefficient of correlation of $-.23$ (P. E. $.164$) was found, indicating a slightly negative relationship between intelligence and success.

Manufacturing and mechanical industries. Forty-six boys were employed in various trades such as mechanics, carpenters, bakers, tailors, etc., listed under this general heading. The median intelligence for this group is the same as for all cases. A correlation of $.03$ (P. E. $.096$) was found between the intelligence and success record of this group showing no apparent relationship between the two factors.

Transportation. The boys included in this group were mostly chauffeurs and teamsters and had the lowest proportion succeeding of any of the general vocational groups as shown by Table II. Also the median intelligence level was lower than that for any other group. However, the coefficient of correlation was found to be $-.51$ (P. E. $.144$), indicating that those who succeeded were more likely to be the boys of lower intelligence within this group.

Trade and professional service. No boys were engaged in occupations classified by the United States Census under these general headings.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study furnishes data concerning the occupational grouping, success record, and intelligence of boys who had left Whittier State School during a period of two years. A positive general relationship between intelligence and success record for the whole group was indicated by a coefficient of correlation of $.19$. Considering the specific occupational groups, however, there was a wide variation of relationship indicated; i. e., from a positive correlation of $.74$ in the agricultural group to a negative correlation of $-.51$ in the case of those engaged in transportation.

The study suggests that a more detailed classification of success record, an objective method of estimating degree of supervision afforded, a measure of vocational ability, as well as measurements of intelligence and temperament, must be devised before we can evaluate the importance of the various factors which bear on the probable

success record. The present study indicates that intelligence is one of the important factors and should be considered in social diagnosis, with due consideration of supplementary factors.

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QUOTATIONS

THE PRESENT STATUS OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN CALIFORNIA

By the Research Staff of Whittier State School.

(A Report Submitted to the California Conference of Social Agencies,
Riverside, May 6, 1920.)

1. *The meaning of delinquency.* A delinquent child is one who commits a crime or who violates the law. The term is no longer applied legally in California, as the Juvenile Court Law of 1913 suspends the former differentiation between "delinquent" and "dependent" children. The law is intended to be operative, however, for any child who is delinquent or who is in danger of becoming so. The law of 1913 defines the following groups of children who may come under its provisions:

Any person under the age of twenty-one years:

1. Who is found begging, receiving or gathering alms;
2. Who has no competent parent or guardian;
3. Who is destitute;
4. Whose home is unfit;
5. Who is found wandering without suitable guardianship;
6. Who is a vagrant;
7. Who habitually visits pool rooms or saloons;

8. Who is habitually addicted to the use of liquor, cigarettes, or drugs;
9. Who habitually refuses to obey his parents or guardians;
10. Who is an habitual truant from school;
11. Who is leading, or in danger of leading, an idle, dissolute, or immoral life;
12. Who is insane or feeble-minded;
13. Who violates any law or ordinance;
14. Who is free from the custody of parents.

2. *Extent of delinquency.* Apparently juvenile delinquency occurs according to the law of averages not only in California, but throughout the United States. In 1918 there were 63,762 children in institutions for delinquents in the United States. This represents approximately 6 children per 10,000 inhabitants. In California in the same year there were 1,513 children in our three state schools, representing about 5 children per 10,000 population. This ratio holds true for practically all counties in California.

During the two years ending June 30, 1918, the three state schools in California received 709 children from 47 counties. The eleven counties sending no children are the sparsely settled and more isolated regions. They are Alpine, Del Norte, Lake, Lassen, Mariposa, Nevada, San Benito, Sierra, Sutter, Trinity and Tuolumne.

The distribution of delinquency cannot be judged with finality from statistics referring only to those committed to institutions, because there are many other children whose cases are otherwise dealt with by the courts.

There are conflicting opinions as to the circumstances upon which the commitments should be based. On the whole, however, the institution figures may be taken as representative, and are likely to be fairly accurate.

The distribution according to sex shows essentially the same conditions for California as for other states, viz., a greatly disproportionate population of boys. The latest figures for institutions in the United States show:

Boys, 78 per cent.

Girls, 22 per cent.

The figures for California for the same year (1918) show:

Boys, 88 per cent.

Girls, 12 per cent.

This consistent difference is probably due first to the greater reluctance everywhere to deal with girls as public charges, and second, to the fact that, the recognition of delinquency in girls is confined almost entirely to one kind of offense (immorality) while for boys it includes almost every kind of waywardness.

Placing a child on probation means that he is within the jurisdiction of the court and under the supervision of a probation officer. This supervision continues until the child is either released from the custody of the court or committed to an institution.

The state maintains three institutions for wards of the court, the California School for Girls, at Ventura, which receives girls up to the age of 21 years; the Preston School of Industry, at Ione, which receives boys up to the age of 21 years; and Whittier State School which receives boys up to the age of 16 years.

Commitments to these institutions are made only by the court and are usually for the remainder of the child's minority, subject to release by the institution or

by further order of the court. The average period of retention in the three schools is approximately two years. Each school maintains a parole department through which supervision is provided for pupils who are placed out before the age of 21 years. There are 85 boys on the parole list of Whittier State School at the present time.

COMMITMENTS TO CALIFORNIA STATE SCHOOLS BY COUNTIES—
BIENNIAL PERIOD JULY 1, 1916—JUNE 30, 1918.

	Ventura	Preston	Whittier	Total	Per Cent		Ventura	Preston	Whittier	Total	Per Cent
Alameda	18	19	14	51	7.2	Placer	—	3	—	3	0.4
Alpine	—	—	—	—	—	Plumas	—	1	—	1	0.1
Amador	—	1	—	1	0.1	Riverside	4	—	9	13	1.8
Butte	1	3	2	6	0.8	Sacramento	6	15	5	26	3.6
Calaveras	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Benito	—	—	—	—	—
Colusa	6	—	1	7	0.9	San Bernardino	6	6	21	33	4.7
Contra Costa	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Deigo	8	17	13	38	5.5
Del Norte	—	—	—	—	—	San Francisco	20	29	9	58	8.2
El Dorado	—	1	1	2	0.3	San Joaquin	3	4	7	14	2.0
Fresno	8	25	13	46	6.6	San Luis Obispo	—	2	3	5	0.7
Glenn	—	—	1	1	0.1	San Mateo	—	1	4	5	0.7
Humboldt	12	3	3	18	2.5	Santa Barbara	3	1	4	8	1.1
Imperial	1	6	2	9	1.3	Santa Clara	4	6	5	15	2.1
Inyo	—	—	1	1	0.1	Santa Cruz	—	1	—	1	0.1
Kern	3	13	13	29	4.1	Shasta	—	—	2	2	0.3
Kings	—	4	5	9	1.3	Sierra	—	—	—	—	—
Lake	—	—	—	—	—	Siskiyou	—	1	1	2	0.3
Lassen	—	—	—	—	—	Solano	1	4	2	7	0.9
Los Angeles	38	100	74	212	30.2	Sonoma	1	3	—	4	0.6
Madera	—	—	3	3	0.4	Stanislaus	—	5	1	6	0.8
Marin	—	1	1	2	0.3	Sutter	—	—	—	—	—
Mariposa	—	—	—	—	—	Tehama	—	—	1	1	0.1
Mendocino	—	1	2	3	0.4	Trinity	—	—	—	—	—
Merced	2	—	1	3	0.4	Tulare	4	5	10	19	2.7
Modoc	—	2	1	3	0.4	Tuolumne	—	—	—	—	—
Mono	—	1	—	1	0.1	Ventura	—	3	—	3	0.4
Monterey	4	4	6	14	2.0	Yolo	—	1	1	2	0.3
Napa	2	—	3	5	0.7	Yuba	—	2	1	3	0.4
Nevada	—	—	—	—	—	Total	156	300	253	709	100.0
Orange	1	4	5	10	1.4						

The study of the problem. Several important studies of delinquent children have been made in California during the past few years. Most of these studies relate chiefly to the results of applying intelligence tests to groups of court or institution charges. Among these studies are reports by Dr. Grace M. Fernald,

from the California School for Girls, Dr. Olga Bridgman, from the San Francisco Juvenile Court, Dr. George Ordahl, from the San Jose Juvenile Court; Vinnie C. Hicks, from the Oakland Juvenile Court; Dr. E. B. Hoag and Dr. M. E. Waterhouse, from the Los Angeles Juvenile Court; Mr. Fred Allen, from the Preston School of Industry; Dr. Faber and Mr. Ritter, from the Boys and Girls Aid Society of San Francisco; and Miss Emily O. Lamb, from the Santa Barbara Juvenile Court.

Forms of misconduct. A recent study of 470 delinquent boys in southern California showed 13 definite kinds of offenses, which may be grouped as follows:

- I. *Offenses against property*; stealing, burglary, larceny, forgery, arson. These constitute 65.9 per cent of the total.
- II. *Offenses against the person*; highway robbery, assault, immorality, murder. These constitute 14.2 per cent.
- III. *Offenses against peace and order*; incorrigibility, truancy, vagrancy, drunkenness. These constitute 19.9 per cent.

In the group of delinquent boys studied, these individual offenses occur according to the following percentages.

1. Stealing.....	24.2 per cent
2. Burglary.....	23.4
3. Larceny.....	10.4
4. Immorality.....	8.9
5. Incorrigibility.....	7.6
6. Vagrancy.....	5.8
7. Truancy.....	4.4
8. Forgery.....	2.9
9. Assault.....	2.3
10. Highway robbery.....	1.7
11. Drunkenness.....	1.2
12. Arson.....	1.0
13. Murder.....	.4

The foregoing classification illustrates the serious nature of juvenile delinquency as a social and educational problem. The cost of social destruction involved annually is beyond estimation.

Present methods of treatment. The present equipment for dealing with delinquent children in California consists of three parts: (1) the juvenile court; (2) the probation office; (3) the institution. The law requires that each county shall have a superior court judge designated "judge of the juvenile court," and at least one probation officer. The number of probation officers varies according to the population of the counties and is set by law.

At Whittier State School investigations have been carried on by the Department of Research, following legislative authorizations of 1915 and 1917. The staff of the department consists of a psychologist, an assistant psychologist, a sociologist, two field-workers and clerical assistants. Studies are being made of many different problems related to the causes and prevention of delinquency, including the psychological, sociological, educational, and physical factors. Reports are available through the Journal of Delinquency and special bulletins. Among the published studies are:

Defective, delinquent and dependent boys.
 Delinquent boys of superior intelligence.
 Eugenics and mental deviation.
 Hereditary nomadism and delinquency.
 A guide to the grading of homes.
 A guide to the grading of neighborhoods.
 Feeble-mindedness and delinquency.
 Delinquency and density of population.
 Exceptional children in the schools of Santa Ana.
 The intelligence of orphan children and unwed mothers.
 Feeble-minded charity cases in California.
 The intelligence of the delinquent boy.

The organization and development of this department have been made possible through the efforts and co-operation of Superintendent Fred. C. Nelles.

The intelligence of delinquent children. Some of the most important facts regarding juvenile delinquency have been disclosed recently by the results of psychological tests. Studies of different groups of children by different investigators have revealed strikingly similar results. The studies show that the intelligence of delinquent children is consistently inferior to that of non-delinquent children. Approximately one-third of the children now being dealt with as delinquent are feeble-minded. Some of the findings are as follows:

California School for Girls.....	Dr. Fernald.....	34 per cent
Preston School of Industry.....	Mr. Allen.....	35 per cent
San Francisco Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Bridgman.....	36 per cent
Los Angeles Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Hoag.....	33 per cent
San Jose Juvenile Court.....	Dr. Ordahl.....	42 per cent
San Francisco Boys-Girls.....	{ Dr. Faber	
Aid Society.....		31 per cent
Whittier State School.....	Mr. Ritter.....	30 per cent

The testing of intelligence has now become a regular procedure in the handling of public charges, wherever experienced examiners are available. Often a test requiring less than an hour will disclose facts which may otherwise have taken years to learn. There are numerous instances where failure to take into account a child's mental development has worked much injustice to the child and to society. At Whittier, where research work has been carried on for nearly six years, we consider the intelligence rating the most important single fact we learn about a new boy. The findings of the psychological laboratory supplemented by the medical examination, family history, grading of the home and neighborhood, etc., are utilized in prescribing the educational and social treatment of each boy, and furnish a safe basis for action when he is sent out on parole. The classification and training of pupils at all three of our state schools have been made more efficient by reason of intelligence tests properly supplemented. We have been forced to the conclusion that if intelligence tests were applied to all school children and their results carefully followed up, there would be fewer cases of delinquency in the courts.

Physical aspects of delinquency. Apparently the close relation between mental condition and delinquency is not paralleled in the case of physical development. Delinquent children are usually well-developed physically, and in good health. Dr. Hoag found the physical condition of boys examined by him in the Los Angeles

Juvenile Court to be as good as that of average public school boys. The findings at Whittier have been essentially the same, except that many boys at entrance are slightly under normal height and weight for their ages. Among the conditions which call for special treatment most often are enlarged tonsils, adenoids, defective teeth and malnutrition. It is not known to what extent these conditions are related to delinquent conduct, but it is believed that no very close relationship exists. However, good health is as essential to the development of moral character as to any other form of education.

Heredity and delinquency. The belief that crime and delinquency are inherited characteristics is not borne out by the most careful investigations. The research staff at Whittier has recorded the principal facts in the family histories of several hundred consecutive commitments, tracing back in many cases through five and six generations. These histories show no tendency to inherit criminality or delinquency.

These same studies, however, do show the inheritance of traits which are closely related to delinquency and crime, and which, if expressed in the children are likely to make normal social adjustments difficult. Chief among these characteristics are feeble-mindedness, psychopathic constitution, excitability, nomadism and weakened inhibitory mechanism with reference to several different forms of self-control. If feeble-minded persons were prevented from producing children, juvenile delinquency would be reduced at least one-third and there would be reason to expect a proportionate decrease in crime and other social evils.

The racial problem. We have in California four racial groups; the white race, the negro race, the Mongolian race, and persons of Mexican and Indian descent. The negro race appears to contribute to the ranks of delinquency in relatively large proportions, the colored population of our state schools for boys being approximately 15 per cent, while the colored population of California is but one per cent. That delinquency is 15 times as common among negro boys as among white boys suggests either important causal facts among the negroes, or a difference in the attitude of the courts toward this race.

Children of Mexican and Indian descent constitute one of the most important educational and social problems in southern California. The exact proportion of these persons in the population is not known, but it is known that delinquency is common among them. The Mexican standards of living, of course, do not accord with ours, but it is more likely that intellectual differences account for most of their unsocial conduct. Mexican children do not learn readily at school, and few of them ever pass above the third grade. Recent studies have indicated that this failure to learn is not because of language difficulties, but is more likely to be due to low intelligence. Apparently, the average intelligence of Mexican children in southern California is not greater than three-fourths that of American children. If this is true, nearly one-half of the Mexican children in our schools are feeble-minded according to the standards which we apply to our own people. Any socially constructive work among the Mexicans, if it is to be successful, must take into account the important facts regarding intellectual differences.

Japanese and Chinese children present no problem in delinquency in this state. There has never been a Japanese boy committed to Whittier State School, and but two Chinese boys in the history of the School. These two were boys of low intelligence, one of whom has been transferred to the Sonoma State Home as an imbecile.

There have been a few older Japanese and Chinese boys handled by the courts, but very few in proportion to the population.

Home and environmental conditions. The findings of the research staff with reference to home conditions will be reported in another paper at this Conference. The most important development to report is the devising of the Whittier scales for grading home and neighborhood conditions, which have been successfully applied in the study of the previous living conditions of boys committed to Whittier. This method provides for a uniform basis of observation and judgment, and reduces to the minimum the element of personal opinion. These studies have shown that the chief social factors in the home conditions of children can be systematically evaluated, and that the method is of great value in the placing of children and in the reconstruction of homes. It is now a regular part of the procedure for each boy received at Whittier to have the home visited and graded by a field-worker of the department of research.

The cost of delinquency. Time and facilities have not been available to secure for this report an accurate statement of the cost of delinquency in California. The expenditure of money as a result of delinquency may be divided roughly into the following groups:

1. Direct damage caused by delinquent acts.
2. The cost of probation.
3. The cost of court procedure.
4. The cost of detention by the county.
5. The cost of state institutions.
6. The cost of private institutions receiving court cases.

Whatever the total cost may be, it is large enough to indicate that the problem of the juvenile delinquent is of serious consequence.

The prevention of delinquency. Not alone because of the many expenditures incident to delinquency but for the betterment of the state and the social and educational welfare of its people we should turn our efforts more in the direction of prevention. Every scientific study of delinquent children reveals the fundamental cause of misconduct to be farther back than is commonly supposed. We must not only take steps to improve our social fabric by better breeding and better living conditions, but also by an improved educational procedure by which the state will assume responsibility for the social, moral and vocational development of all children, and especially for those whose present opportunities are not commensurate with their real capacities.—*From the Social Agencies Bulletin.*

A PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDY OF STEALING IN JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

This paper made no attempt to consider the so-called benign types of ordinary stealing, nor was emphasis placed on fanciful stealing, such as the kleptomaniacs. On the whole the main characteristics of the persons here considered were stealing money and consciously committing other antisocial acts of a petty sort, mainly as a consequence of having no well-grounded sense of property rights. Usually these individuals showed predominantly many other poor adaptations to authority and law from earliest life, or they appeared unable to grasp thoroughly the importance of making the proper submission and compromise with parental discipline. There were some investigators who looked for the root of these trends entirely in the

make-up of the youth himself, accounting him either a moron, a subinhibited mental defective, one anti-socially inclined, or a psychopathic inferior, whatever that term might mean. Others greatly favored the idea that the parents or home environment were largely responsible for the development, if not for the actual implantation of the unruly or immoral traits of character. Usually neither group failed to indict the family stock for the delinquents found. When one undertook to investigate a series of such youths he was impressed by the fact that there were many more subtle forces at work than those usually obvious on the surface. Healy, in his investigations of mental conflicts and repressions in delinquent children, analyzed the acts of stealing money to sex delinquency and the incomplete mastery of the latter. In a long series of cases he found surprisingly often concealed sexual conflict as well as a defect in parental discipline and a lack of proper filial-parental relations. However, he mentioned no case in which antagonism to the father and desire for childish revenge upon this parent was the cause for stealing. Such a case was recently seen by the writer. This was a boy who for several years had stolen and played truant from school. The mother herself had become embittered because of her marital troubles and had gone to live with her mother. The boy stole so much from the grandmother and her immediate family that the mother had to take him elsewhere. The boy's great fault was in concealing his thoughts and daily activities from the grown people. After the more obvious faults in his home and school life were set right and the boy was permitted certain liberties and pleasures, his conduct improved, yet he still lied and was sly. A frank talk with this boy showed that he failed to make any good compromise with discipline and authority. Clark related several similar instances and also cases in which the delinquency was more complicated and seemed in part due to inability to adjust properly to the revolt at puberty. In one case the cause seemed to lie in a latent homosexual complex. From a study of these cases the writer believed that one might fairly infer, when the act of stealing occurred without apparent motive, at least sufficiently for the offense as ordinarily found, that it was probably unconsciously conditioned upon either a defect in adaptation to authority, to sexual conflict and regression at puberty, or it was a vicious homosexual theft substitution for the offender's own sex. The line of therapeutic procedure was obvious in all these cases, that was, explanation by analysis, conscious guidance, and a sympathetic after-care and training. The enormous demand and difficulty of sublimation in the homosexual victim of the theft habit made correction extremely difficult. In fact it was to be doubted whether the homosexual was ever able to sublimate sufficiently to keep him from social conflicts or from a neurosis more or less dominant through his life. One could not too forcibly insist upon the importance of studying the child's adaptation to parental authority when delinquency began at a very early age as a basis for adjustment to all law and order in the future life of the individual. Sufficient data were at hand to warrant the statement that in the infant mind one of the earliest conceptions of reality was impingement of the desires by the parent. The magic signals of crying and gesture did not move the parent to gratify the child's wish. In the persistence of this feeling of unrequited longing no doubt the child began to scrutinize with increasing wonder the reason for noncompliance on the part of the parent, and more or less rapidly interpreted it in terms of selfishness or the self-satisfied possession of things and powers which enabled the person calmly to resist the child's frantic demands. Soon the parent's

belongings were taken as symbols of the parents' potential self-sufficiency. It was not a far step to the further exercise of power for the child's satisfaction in gratifying his personal appetite in stealing fruits, or committing forbidden excesses which he believed the parent had unrestricted opportunities to enjoy. This seizing of the parental power and privilege advanced to new forms of covetousness and conquest, namely, that of possessing the magic symbol, money. In conclusion, it might be said that, even when the child's defective adaptation to authority and proper rights were made clear, there were possibly other and more genetic reasons for this early conflict, namely, the latent infantile desire to usurp the place of the father and all its possible prerogatives. While one need not neglect the study of the adult life of criminals, and especially the causes of recidivism, even there the adult pattern of the antisocial acts would probably be found to embrace in greater part the distorted mechanism of the primary life fault of early life. Clark, in closing, added his suggestions to those of Healy and Glueck to the end that the intensive study of antisocial behavior of the juvenile delinquent might enable us to correct not a few such faults before a fixed formation of habits and character had rendered the offender so helpless in adult life.—*L. P. Clark*. N.Y. Acad. Med. Ped. Sect. Apr. 11, 1918; Med. Rec. Mar. 15, 1919. (Quoted from Journal of Mental and Nervous Disease, 51-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 103-105.)

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Bridgman, Olga. *An Experimental Study of Abnormal Children, with Special Reference to the Problems of Dependency and Delinquency.* Berkeley: University of California Publications in Psychology. Vol. 3, No. 1. March 30, 1918. pp. 59. Price 65 cents.

A report on intelligence tests and supplementary data on 205 children sent to the psychological clinic of the University of California Hospital in San Francisco. The children came from various agencies, and are classified by the author into two groups—*delinquent* and *dependent*. These terms are properly defined, according to the facts in the case, and without regard to the legal use of the terms. The Binet scale ratings, supplemented with social data, indicate that for the delinquent group 36 per cent are feeble-minded, 32 per cent backward, and 32 per cent normal. Of the dependent group, 26 per cent are classified as feeble-minded, 39 per cent backward and 34 per cent normal. Among the "normal" groups individual cases of various abnormal conditions were found. The environmental factors, roughly classified, indicate a preponderance of unfavorable conditions. The author presents her data clearly, and avoids sweeping conclusions. She emphasizes the significant relation which mental deficiency bears to delinquency and dependency, urging wider application of psychological methods in the schools. If dependent children are to be made into useful citizens, they should be cared for before they become delinquent. "If this is to be done successfully, plans must be made for them, so that, when they arrive at an age when the state laws no longer provide for their maintenance, any who need special care or supervision can be provided for permanently." The study is representative of the excellent work being done by Dr. Bridgman in San Francisco. (J. H. W.)

Ellwood, Charles A. *The Social Problem: A Reconstructive Analysis.* The MacMillan Company. N.Y. 1920. pp. 289. Price \$1.75.

A revised and enlarged edition furnishing the principles of progressive social reconstruction, is presented by a well-known sociologist. The social problem is "the problem of the relations of men to one another," and is coextensive with humanity. It has been produced by "the conflict between inharmonious traditions and ideals in our culture, and the lack of adaptation of our ideas and ideals to the present conditions of life." Specifically, the volume presents a statement of the problem, historical elements, physical and biological elements, economic elements, spiritual and ideal elements, educational elements, and a final chapter concerning the solution of the social problem. In the author's view it is practically a matter of developing a fuller social intelligence and social character in the individual by means of social leadership and social education. The roots of character in the individual—heredity, general social environment, and personal education—are largely a social product and their development may be controlled. The book is a valuable contribution to social theory, is full of practical suggestions indicating specific reconstructive movements, and should be familiar to all those interested in the solution of the social problem. (W.W.C.)

Grigg, Harry H. and Haynes, George E. *Junk Dealing and Juvenile Delinquency.* Text by Albert E. Webster. Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago. Chicago Ill. (Undated) pp. 60. Price 25 cents.

How the American people apparently are equally oblivious of the two billion dollars' worth of junk resulting from the lack of thrift and the juvenile delinquency associated with the collection and sale of this material is clearly set forth in this study. It reveals interesting facts relative to the economic and social aspects of the junk business, based upon four sources of data: (1) local (Chicago) reports; (2) reports from other cities; (3) a special study of 100 delinquent boys; and (4) a study of the junk dealer himself. The boys range from 11 to 18 years of age. About 88 per cent of them testified that their misconduct was associated with the practice of "junking." This led to stealing, burglary, truancy, and sometimes to personal viciousness. The materials collected were mostly rags, bottles and metals. Few of the parents had discouraged the practice, and some even encouraged it. Most of the boys came from large, inadequately supported families. Much of the blame is placed by the writers on the present unsupervised practices of junk dealers, of whom there are 1700 daily wandering about the streets of Chicago. A municipal system is suggested and strongly urged as a preventive and economic measure. Studies of this character will help us get at the root of juvenile delinquency and will be influential in its ultimate prevention. (J. H. W.)

Nash, Alice M. and Porteus, S. D. *Educational Treatment of Defectives.* Reprinted from Training School Bulletin, November, 1919. Publications of the Training School Vineland, N. J. No. 18, November, 1919. pp. 19.

This illuminating pamphlet sets forth, briefly, the Vineland experience in the training of defective children. Since so many have been led to look to Vineland for help in solving the problems of feeble-mindedness, the publication of this experience is timely. Some valuable suggestions are made concerning the function and conduct of a special class. Many such classes in the public schools, it is pointed out, are so interested in methods of teaching that they forget why they

are teaching these children at all. Children are assigned to the ungraded room because the regular room is too "generalized," and then are tied to a scheme of manual training which is even more generalized. Teaching scraps of woodwork or basketry helps little or not at all in preparing defectives for self-support. One of the advantages of the opportunity class, however, is that it allows the teachers in the regular classes an opportunity to do better work with their defectives eliminated. Vineland has long been in the foreground in teaching, as well as in research, and persons interested in special class work will find this booklet well worth possessing. (J. H. W.)

National Child Welfare Association. *Child Welfare Handbook.* New York. (Undated) pp. 35. Price 50 cents.

This handbook embodies the aims of the National Child Welfare Association and a history and explanation of its chief *modus operandi*—the child welfare exhibit movement. The aim of the Association is to guarantee to every child "his birthright of health, education, play and love." Emphasis is laid upon the fact that child welfare is an integral part of general welfare and cannot be dissociated from it. As such, it commands the interest of every citizen. A Child Welfare Questionnaire is given which includes vital points on which every community should be informed concerning its children. The *modus operandi*—the child welfare exhibits—was planned on the principal that pictures create a greater motor impulse than books. These exhibits have proven effective in rousing community interest in this important and far-reaching subject. Large illustrations, reproducing the twenty sets of exhibit posters, are accompanied by brief supplementary explanations regarding the value and use of each particular set. These sets begin with one on pre-natal care and conclude with good and bad housing and a set for campaign purposes. Each set includes anywhere from six to thirteen posters which drive home the truth with graphic pictures and well chosen phrases. Every phase of child welfare is included—mental, moral, physical and environmental. The handbook, in addition, outlines the method of using these for exhibition purposes. The value of this method of enlisting the interest and efforts of any community in child welfare is indeed great. The offer of exhibit material and expert assistance throws open to any group this opportunity for increasing work along child welfare lines, and certainly should be embraced. (E. K. B.)

Porteus, S. D. *Porteus Tests—The Vineland Revision.* The second of the 1919 series of publications from the Research Department of the Training School at Vineland, N. J. September, 1919. Price 25 cents.

An illuminating description of the Porteus intelligence tests, with standardization data and complete directions for their use. The painstaking work with which Dr. Porteus has perfected and applied these tests adds considerably to their scientific value. The interesting feature of the scale is that the material presented is uniform, but of increasing difficulty from year to year. By passing through a graded series of maze problems, the subject's level of performance may be compared with those of children between the ages of 3 and 14 years. Although intended to supplement the Binet series, Dr. Porteus believes that the maze test reveals in many cases a more accurate intelligence score than can be obtained by the Binet method. This is due, it is claimed, chiefly to the use of uniform material, to the

absence of language requirements, and to the fact that no special intellectual abilities are called into play. The tests correlate high with the Binet tests, with occupational progress, and with apparent social fitness. In scholastic ability, however, the Binet correlation is higher than the Porteus. Several case histories are given to illustrate the diagnostic value of the maze tests where the Binet ratings are too high. The new scale findings merit careful consideration and more extensive comparisons. (J. H. W.)

Seattle Juvenile Court. *Report for the Year 1919.* Seattle, Wash. pp. 19.

This report contains statistical tables and a brief analysis of the sources, character, and disposition of cases brought to the Seattle Juvenile Court during the year. Details concerning sex, offenses, age, parental conditions, source of complaints, etc., are given. There is also a statement concerning the administration of the Mothers' Pension Act providing for the children of destitute mothers. (W. W. C.)

Thompson, Laura A. *Laws Relating to Mothers' Pensions.* Childrens' Bureau. Washington. 1919. pp. 316.

A revision and extension of a report on the same subject submitted in 1914, now including a compilation of laws relating to "mothers' pensions" in the United States, Canada, Denmark, and New Zealand. Following an introduction summarizing the legislative history, general details of the laws and the trend of legislation, copies of the laws, rules and regulations operative in each state or country are given. An extended list of references covering forty-nine pages is also furnished. The extent of the movement to provide for the support of dependent children in their own homes out of public funds is shown by the adoption of laws in all but nine states, and indicates a widely held and deeply rooted conviction that no child should be deprived of home life and a mother's care on account of poverty alone. (W. W. C.)

U. S. Bureau of Education. *Industrial Schools for Delinquents, 1917-18.* Bulletin, 1919, No. 53. Washington: Government Printing Office. pp. 53.

An excellent report, giving important data concerning industrial schools for delinquents, prepared by the statistical division of the Bureau, under the supervision of H. R. Bonner. The report is illustrated with charts, giving for the first time graphical comparisons of the different states. The statistics are obtained from the reports of 135 schools, representing a total enrollment of 49,660 boys and 14,102 girls. The proportion of children committed to these institutions is rapidly increasing in comparison with the growth of the whole population. The number of white inmates has increased 170 per cent since 1900, and the number of colored inmates 215 per cent. It is shown that 81 per cent of all inmates are receiving instruction in school classes, and 68 per cent are learning a trade. The number of teachers since 1900 has increased 111 per cent, although the number of inmates increased 167 per cent. In 1918, 53 per cent of the teachers were women, and 42 per cent were men. The average valuation of property per pupil is \$1645. Wyoming heads the list with an average valuation of \$5069; Arizona, \$3071; New York, \$2473; Minnesota \$2419. California ranks eighth, with an average valuation of \$1916. The average per capita expenditure is \$287; Louisiana, California, Montana, Idaho and Oregon leading in the order named. The report will be welcomed by all persons interested in this important phase of public education. (J. H. W.)

U. S. Department of Labor. *Children's Bureau. Minimum Standards for Child Welfare.* Bureau Publication No.62. Government Printing Office. Washington, D. C. 1919. pp. 15.

As a result of the Washington Conference, May 5-8, 1919 and subsequent regional conferences held at the request of the President of the United States for the purpose of formulating and publishing standards for the better protection of children, minimum standards for child welfare were made. These standards consider the question from three angles: (1) child labor and education; (2) public protection of the health of mothers and children; (3) children in need of special care. The first group of standards, dealing with child labor and education, so regulates the age, physical condition and education of the working minor and the hours, wage and conditions of his employment as to correlate his equipment with the work undertaken, thus securing maximum future energy and ability for the child. A plan for the administration of these regulations is offered. The second group deals with the physical and medical care necessary for maternity cases, infants and pre-school children, school children and adolescent children. The plans for the care of these cases are so worked out that the child receives constant watchfulness from the prenatal period through adolescence. Provision is made for the physically exceptional child. The third group of standards deals with the "children who are in need of special care by reason of unfortunate home conditions, physical or mental handicap, or delinquency." The standards for this group consider the economic needs as related to the maintenance of the home, children's institutions and the principles governing child placing, with emphasis on the necessity of state supervision of these latter two, care of children born out of wedlock, mental hygiene and the care of mentally defective children, Juvenile courts and rural social work. In conclusion, the urgent need for more scientific information regarding child welfare is pointed out. These standards, while minimum, are nevertheless, comprehensive; every phase of the child's welfare is considered with a view to conserving and developing him to a level at least approximating his maximum. No student of hygiene, education or social welfare would wish the elimination of a single one of these "minimum standards." They show how much needs to be done and, at the same time, form a practical working basis. (E.K.B.)

Wines, F. H.: *Punishment and Reformation.* New edition, revised and enlarged by Winthrop D. Lane. New York. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., pp. 481. Price \$2.50.

An excellent and timely revision of Professor Wines' well known book. Dr. Lane adds the more important findings of recent years, and thus brings the treatise up-to-date scientifically. The method of revision, by which certain whole sections of the original are replaced by sections of new material, is especially commendable. The main thesis that human conduct, good and bad, is the result of the interaction of psychological and social factors, is in accord with the present day trend of thought. We must first know the individual offender, then study the ways in which his individuality has reacted to the various complexities of our social organization. The fundamental social forces in prevention are the home, the school, the church and the community spirit. These must be brought into proper relationship to the end that each individual may have normal opportunities befitting his capacities and tendencies. The complete elimination of crime, the author thinks, is afar off. The application of known preventive methods, however, has already yielded promising results. (J.H. W.)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Alcatraz. In common with many other prisons, the Pacific branch of the U. S. Disciplinary Barracks at Alcatraz Island has been largely bound by routine, and, until recently, has not been interested in men's differences or their individual personalities and traits. Prisons in this country are generally built upon the notion that all criminals come to their cell doors equal or, at least, require the same kind of disciplinary control. The ideal treatment of the offender is regarded to be to coerce or frighten him into virtue, which consequently establishes what may be called reformation through misery. Rules governing conduct at Alcatraz are fairly minute, numerous and rigid enough to cause constant annoyance and irritation. The rules are often violated either openly or secretly and have several bad effects including (a) opportunity for "riding" prisoners by guards, and (b) actual repression of men so that initiative, choice, the power of judgment, and of assuming responsibility are so curtailed as to make automatons of the men. The rules at Alcatraz are so rigid that more than half of the men become offenders within the prison.—*Winthrop D. Lane*. Survey, XLIV-14, July 3, 1920. pp. 470-472. (W. W. C.)

Defects Found in Drafted Men. This article gives some results of the examinations for military service during the recent war. The total number of men involved in the study was about 2,500,000. "This number constitutes practically all of those rejected by local boards and about two-thirds of those examined at mobilization camps, but it is representative of all." Most of the men were between the ages of 21 and 30. The figures are considered in turn; first, the relative frequency of the defects; second, the classification of men on the basis of these defects; third, the relation of the defects to geographical distribution, occupation, and race. The authors found that 408 men out of every 1000 examined were defective in some way. The defect occurring most frequently was that of a mechanical sort, involving bones and joints, appendages, hands and feet, constituting about 39 per cent of all defects. The defect taking second place was that of the sense organs, comprising about 12 per cent. Next in order of frequency were tuberculosis and venereal disease, together constituting 11 per cent. The geographical distribution of venereal diseases showed a concentration in the southern states where the high susceptibility of the negroes plays a part. Mental and nervous defects comprised about 6 per cent, the commonest forms being epilepsy and mental deficiency. Epilepsy is more prevalent in rural districts and in the older settled parts of the country. Mental deficiency was found especially prevalent in rural districts and more of it in the southern states than in the northern. Rhode Island is first or second in alcoholism while Virginia is among the first six states in mental deficiency and mental alienation. As a whole, the middle-western states present a more fit group. "Altogether it is clear that fully 90 per cent of the defects found are not of such a nature as to interfere seriously with the man's performing services of the highest order in civil life."—*C. B. Davenport and Albert G. Love*. Scientific Monthly, X-1 and X-2, Jan. and Feb. 1920. pp. 5-25 and 125-141. (E. K. B.)

A Graphic Method of Measuring Civilization, and Some of its Applications. In order to secure a fair measure of civilization personal opinions must be eliminated and some means for measuring the range of variation in each community must be found. Government census reports afford the most data. The statistics that may be used might be roughly divided into two classes, namely, institutional and individual. The former include such data as wealth, manufacturing, banking, insurance, number of newspapers, etc. The latter includes number of persons per area, age, marital condition, education, occupation, etc. Out of this great mass of information that on education and occupation appears as the most promising criteria. The difficulty with the first of these two criteria is the fact that the census has only concerned itself with literacy or illiteracy, failing to take into account any gradations of education aside from the bare ability to read and write. The difficulty with occupations as a criterion is also the method of census taking wherein no cognizance of type or quality of work has been made; the listing as to industry is the only classification. A suggested grading is offered of ten groups according to economic standing. The application of this grading plus an educational rating would give the civilization number or coefficient of an individual. One graph giving education curves for teachers and prisoners shows the education curve for the former to be consistently higher. A second graph, dealing with occupation only, shows the curve based on the occupations of the first thousand individuals in *Who's Who in America* to be the highest. The next highest is that of college graduates and the lowest that of negroes. The curve of college graduates is higher than that of non-graduates and "illustrates graphically the effect of higher education." In conclusion, the writer points out the value of the perfection of such a scale; it would be especially helpful in determining problems of sovereignty, etc.—*Roland M. Harper*. The Scientific Monthly, X-3, Mar. 1920. pp. 292-305. (E. K. B.)

Intelligence and Mental Tests. Intelligence, or what is measured by the tests, should not be assumed to be a mental factor or force in some way related to a body and adjusting that body to certain objects in contact with it. Rather, intelligence should be considered as a specific mode of adjustmental response. May not the prepsychological problem of individual differences lie in the biological stock of the individual? A person's psychological conduct is greatly influenced by his neuroglandular organization and by the perfection or degree of development of his receptor systems. A knowledge of the complex and complete organization of the human individual will clear up many problems of temperament, character, capacity, traits and genius. Emphasis should be placed upon the actual response as it can be studied. Unfruitful attempts to seize upon a hypothetical faculty will thus be avoided and a more positive understanding of actual psychological phenomena be attained. The new direction thus given to psychology will obviate speculation as to whether the "mind" is organized so that its acts are related or unrelated. We would learn that all intelligent acts must be specific, for our reaction patterns are definite, concrete responses. Improvements in our responses to our surroundings are induced by variations in the objects and their relations, to which we must adapt ourselves. The acquisition of numerous response patterns gives the individual the qualities of intelligence among which are variety, independence, agility and rapidity of response.—*J. R. Kantor*. Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific methods, XVII, May 1920. pp. 260-268. (J. M.)

Facial Expression as an Index of Mentality. The use of physiognomy as a branch of psychology has fallen into curious neglect and ill-repute, notwithstanding its study by such creditable scientists as Bell, Darwin, and Galton. In everyday life it is a trusted clue to mental character. Yet its validity has hardly been tested by extended study. This report describes some preliminary experiments calculated to sound the field, and to stimulate systematic observation of expressions which indicate character. The data include (1) observations made during interviews, (2) studies of photographs, and (3) independent judgments of teachers. The subjects were school children ranging from 10 to 14 years of age, and adults ranging from 20 to 40. Twenty-nine qualities were observed, including physical, intellectual, and emotional traits. These were carefully defined, and graded as accurately as possible. The correlations, for the most part, are low. Of 87 coefficients only five are above .50. These are *physical vitality*, *neurotic tendencies*, *emotionality*, *joy*, and *fear*. The correlation for *honesty* is .17; for *attention*, .24; for *general intelligence*, .39. These represent correlations between the psychologist's observations and the teachers' judgments. The judgments based on photographs are distinctly inferior. In all judgments the emotional qualities are more easily detected than intellectual and moral qualities. On the whole, the study indicates the possibility of a teachable technique.—*Cyril Burt*. *Child Study*, XII-1, June 1919. pp. 1-3 (J. H. W.)

Science and the State. The war has done much to increase in the mind of the public the recognized value of scientific research. Evidence of this is found in the fact that the advancement of science is placed in the forefront of the British Labor Party's political platform. The British government has also shown that the advancement of science is to be incorporated into part of its regular functions. Coming to the United States we find that "the federal government has for years employed a number of agencies for carrying on scientific work of every description." This indicates that our government recognizes the value of scientific work and the "realization by the average citizen that science is a necessity and entitled to support by the government." In 1917 it was estimated that four million dollars was expended for various scientific undertakings, relating chiefly to agriculture in all its various ramifications. While it is realized that scientific work is valuable, the available resources of men, money and opportunity are not being fully utilized. A revision of the treatment of men of science, especially those at the head of laboratories, should be instituted. The matters of permitting initiative, of tenure of office, and of recognition of merit demand immediate attention in order to place our scientific research upon a secure footing and one calculated to produce the fullest results.—*William Salant*. *Scientific Monthly*, X-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 372-377. (E. K. B.)

The Educability Level. The aim of this experiment was to determine as far as possible the number of children, in a kindergarten class in one of the poorest quarters of the city, who would be able to do the work of the first grade in the coming fall. The method used was teaching the children by means of test material form-boards, puzzles, color cubes, sticks, primers and anagrams. Teaching was continued just far enough to determine the child's ability to progress. There were thirteen subjects. All were above five years, four were six, one was seven. All had been in kindergarten during the current year, some during the year before

and one for two years before. Six of the group were found able to do school work. Seven had not sufficient physical or mental development to warrant their placement in a regular grade.—*Gladys G. Ide*. *Psychological Clinic* XII, 5-9, May 15, 1919. pp. 179-195. (J. M.)

Why Does Our Public Fail to Support Research? This failure is caused by the lack of any real comprehension of what research means. "Research and teaching are the twin functions of the university," but research is pushed aside because not even the entire university faculty and student body, let alone the average citizen, have grasped the vitalness of research to real progress. "Scientific research is not a thing isolated; it is part of the necessary work of the world and when that is once understood, it will take its place along with our other normal activities." The university man must be made to realize this since "reforms start with individuals, rather than with multitudes" and it is right that the university man should take the lead. But this is not enough. It must be further realized that "it is nonsense to say that the scientific man must be a genius. . . . he is usually a man (or woman) of rather ordinary ability, somewhat above the average, who will work when suitably fed, housed and clothed." When it is generally understood that scientific research can assist in the creation of wealth, banishment of disease and illumination of the mind, "it will be regarded as the indispensable friend of mankind."—*T. D. A. Cockerell*. *Scientific Monthly*, X-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 368-371. (E. K. B.)

Tests of Discrimination and Multiple Choice for Vocational Diagnosis. The subjects were disabled soldiers. The multiple choice apparatus was one made by Professor Porter. The problem: to learn the numbers of twelve keys in random order. Results were scored according to the number of errors, (1) unclassified, (2) illogical, (3) perseverative, (4) both illogical and perseverative. The apparatus for discrimination was that constructed by Professor McComas. The problem here discrimination of four colors. The men were also given the army Alpha test, the cube test, (Pintner's standardization,) the Healy picture completion test II. Correlation between the discrimination test and Alpha show that, as a basis for vocational selection, the army test would have been unfair to some of the men. Two of the lowest in Alpha were among the highest in discrimination and the man who stood next the highest in Alpha was one of the lowest in discrimination. Although quick and well educated he was easily excited and confused under stress. From the limited observations it appeared that the cube test tried out quickness of perception and immediate retention; the discrimination test more complicated memorizing and speed of judgment under stress; the picture completion test the ability to notice and to retain important details and to choose consistently with both immediate and previously observed factors of a situation, while the multiple choice test seemed to try out similar abilities with reference to more abstract factors. These tests, together with several for motor ability have proved of considerable value in recommending vocational courses for disabled men.—*Dagny Sunne*. *Psychological Bulletin*, XVI-8, Aug. 1919. pp. 262-267. (J. M.)

Minutes of Meeting of the Committee on Mental Hygiene. Suggestions for future work include a plan for work with psychopathic children. "It has been said that future preventive work in mental hygiene lies to a large extent in the schools." It is not yet known experimentally whether the neurotic child should have special class treatment or not. Neither is it known to what extent intensive social service

work can be of value in adjusting these children to their conditions or, in some cases, in adjusting their conditions alone. The plan would involve (1) the use of clinic periods and the attention of one of the attending psychiatrists; (2) a social service worker who would go into the schools as a visiting teacher; (3) equipment for psychological tests; (4) a physician to give physical examinations; (5) the selection of a school where poverty is not the chief problem and where there are available some community facilities such as playgrounds, etc. This study would present valuable material along the line of mental hygiene.—Report in *Ungraded*, V-4, Jan. 1920. pp. 84-87. (E. K. B.)

The Function of Part-time Continuation Schools. Such schools designed for those who go to work at minimum age permitted by law are concessions to unfortunate social conditions which make early employment necessary or to the restlessness of certain children who find the routine of the full time school repugnant to their tastes. Except for the delinquent and the defective the continuation school for children under eighteen years of age should be regarded as a merely temporary expedient. The perpetuation of ignorance and illiteracy, also difficulty in solving the problem of democracy are strengthened by the insidious arguments that high school education is a privilege reserved for the few able to profit by it and that high school education should be limited since too much education would rob society of menial task workers. Special schools should be provided for the defectives unable to complete normal work. A barrier is raised against the progress of those whose education is blocked by the absorption which industry exerts on too available cheap labor. The continuation school is but a temporary substitute for the larger opportunity of full time schools, especially with its present incompletely organized aims and methods. Fundamental is the proposition that universal and compulsory high school education for all except defectives should be the goal of our educational system. Meanwhile, the continuation school will best serve the purposes of democracy by fitting its students for the two vocations, citizenship and home-making, using a large amount of broadening idealism and leaving the improvement in manual skill for shop hours.—*Thomas Warrington Gosling*. *School and Society*, XI-281, May 15, 1920. pp. 571-575. (K. M. C.)

"American Made." "Of all the products of American enterprise and ingenuity brought out by the last four epoch-making years, none has challenged the interest of the thinking world more decisively than the American plan of venereal disease control." This plan is four-fold in its nature, comprising law enforcement, medical measures, education and recreation. The author gives a brief summary of the measures adopted in other countries, thus showing that America is unique in her inclusion of all *four* methods of prophylaxis. Suppression and not segregation is the key-note of the law enforcement phase while the elimination of the quack doctor and the substitution of free medical attention where necessary is the key-note of the medical measures phase. Education should be given in both the schools and at home with recreation as a faithful and valuable concomitant for the outlet of that surplus energy.—*Marjorie Delavan*. *Public Health* (of Michigan), VIII-2, Feb. 1920. pp. 61-64. (E. K. B.)

Some New Problems for Psychiatric Research in Delinquency. It is no longer necessary to dwell upon the value of careful psychiatric examinations of prisoners

and persons accused of crime. The work was started solely for the purpose of detecting individuals for whom we have more appropriate places than prisons and reformatories. Merely to list the clinics dealing with crime and delinquency would indicate the rapid growth of this method of studying crime. With the entry into the war the psychiatric workers started in a new field. They worked much along the same line with military offenders. In spite of the examinations in camps the A. E. F. contained many men of less than normal intelligence and they were often exposed to unbelievable fatigue. Any company commander who saw service in France will say that he did not hold his men responsible at all times to the same standards of accountability as in the cantonment at home. A mental examination preceded not only the execution but the trial in all serious cases for punishment. With the release of psychiatrists from military service it should be possible to extend their activities. It would be logical to effect a practical co-operation between psychiatric clinics in prisons, and those in magistrates' and higher criminal courts. It would make the investigations available to both places and the same methods of treatment could be applied to the delinquent individual at many different steps in his career. We must now make full use of the resources for research in the field of criminology and not content ourselves with performing the practical tasks, while we reserve the most highly developed tools in our possession for those whose disorders of conduct the world has agreed to call illness.—*Thomas W. Salmon*. *Mental Hygiene*, IV-I, Jan. 1920. pp. 29-42. (M. S. C.)

A Functional Interpretation of Human Instincts. The functional standpoint makes necessary a careful discrimination between the simple, direct response of an instinct and the more complex reaction pattern of instinctive behavior which latter includes most of our actual responses. As to the specificity of instincts, if we take concrete human behavior to be the province of psychology we quickly recognize that instincts are necessarily specific in their functioning but that the adult individual has no instincts. A study of the relation of emotions to instincts shows the emotion to be an interrupting form of response which dissociates the customary reaction systems leaving the way open for a comparatively simple form of behavior to function. Three obstructive tendencies hinder psychological thinking. (1) Metapsychological speculation giving rise to an attitude that maintains unknowables which prevent the adequate investigation of psychological phenomena. (2) Biological abstractionism which obscures the extremely dynamic character of human behavior by assuming that the deep seated action patterns developed out of social processes are permanent elements of human character. (3) Psychological simplification which reduces instinctive conduct to the functioning of psychical dispositions or impulses. A functional view-point avoids these insidious tendencies and may, especially in the matter of instinctive conduct, lead to a scientific interpretation of an important series of psychological adaptations.—*J. R. Kantor*. *Psychological Review*, XXVII-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 50-72. (J.M.)

Psychopathic Clinic of the Children's Court of the City of New York. Second Annual Report. During the year 1918 a careful mental and physical examination was made of the 1,082 children sent from the city's five children's courts. The judges sent to the clinic those cases which they recognized as not being normal mentally. They were classified in 7 groups, the normal, retarded, mentally deficient, constitutionally psychopathic inferiors, psycholitic group, psychoneuroses and

neuroses, and epileptic. Of the 1,062 cases examined, 82 per cent were classified in terms of deviation from the normal. The ages of these children varied from six to thirteen years. There were 37.2 per cent who had a favorable environment; 49.8 per cent unfavorable and 13 per cent the environment was unknown. There were 38.6 per cent who had an unfavorable heredity; 42.5 per cent was favorable, while 6.1 per cent was doubtful, and 12.8 per cent unknown. The heredity was considered unfavorable when syphilis, insanity, mental deficiency, epilepsy, tuberculosis or alcoholism was found among the ancestors. Of 268 recidivists 39 were normal; 118 were retarded; 73 were feeble-minded; 18 were constitutional psychopathic inferiors; 8 were psychotic; 17 were psychoneurotic and 3 were epileptic. A number of interesting charts are given showing the grade reached by those examined and the various types of offenses. The recidivist presents the real problem in criminology and the most advantageous place to begin a study of recidivism is in the children's courts with pre-adolescent children.—*Helen Montagu*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-4, Oct. 1919. pp. 650-669. (M. S. C.)

An Analytic View of the Basis of Character. First, one must postulate the existence of the unconscious mind as the source of intuitive knowledge, the germinal place of mental and emotional forces. Second, one must recognize the presence of psychic energy, libido in the sense of any passionate interest or form of life-force. Third, one must understand the bi-sexual predisposition of any individual. There is no exclusively masculine man nor feminine woman. Fourth, one must take into account the three normal components of sexuality, auto-erotism, homo-sexuality and hetero-sexuality, each essential in the development of the individual. Of these the auto-erotic is the first to develop. It is gradually sublimated and is of the highest value, being embodied in desires for knowledge, for excellence in sport and work, for "creation out of self." Auto-erotic practices which may crop out during childhood or youth should not be taken too seriously. They may merely indicate some personal question demanding an answer. The component which presents the greatest problem in the somewhat out-of-balance world of today is that of homo-sexuality. Normally a most useful and necessary tendency, it may become fixed because in the absence of personal effort and development it is the easiest expression of love that life offers to the individual. For the solution of this problem it is necessary that any person concerned in the guidance of others should have a clear insight into the content of his own sexuality both conscious and unconscious. The hetero-sexual component is present throughout life. A possible blocking of this impulse may come from a too passionate devotion of the child for the parent of the opposite sex. This may lead later to dependence and a lack of adaptability. The dangers in all these directions are greatest when the underlying sex elements remain unconscious.—*Constance Long*. *Psychoanalytic Review*, VII-1, Jan. 1910. pp. 1-14. (J. M.)

The Legal Treatment of Family Desertion. That the family is the basis of society and that whatever affects its stability also affects the stability of the nation is a truth generally acknowledged. Anything which operates to destroy the family must be handled and suppressed by society. Family desertion is becoming more common and many states have enacted laws making it a criminal offense. Under the common law desertion of wife or children was a matter for the civil court under whose provisions the deserter could not be brought before it if he had

left its jurisdiction. For this reason family desertion has, in nearly all the states been made a statutory crime thus enabling the court to reach out and bring back the deserter. To further carry this out, Federal laws have been enacted to make possible interstate rendition of family deserters and a treaty is now pending with Great Britain whereby family desertions will become an extraditable offense. With the establishment of this treaty America will offer no refuge for the deserter and provide machinery whereby he may be forced to realize his responsibility.—*Frank L. Baldwin*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-4, April 1920. pp. 66-67. (E. K. B.)

Medico-Psychological Study of Delinquents. The most fundamental needs of the courts which deal with delinquents is the knowledge of the qualities of the human beings about whom a decision is to be made. Medico-psychology should play an important part in the interpretation. An interesting case of an eleven year old boy, who was a night vagrant, is cited. To the judge the boy appeared to be normally advanced in school; his physical appearance seemed normal; and his parents were apparently decent people. The boy shows no other delinquencies and is devoted to his parents. Puzzled, the judge may continue the case for further information. The point of view of the medico-psychologist may now be considered. The boy may have some significant defect or irritative condition which might have a causative relationship to his troubles. Next a psychological study should be made of the mental aspects of the boy's life, he may be mentally defective, or psychopathic. Queer phases of his "forgetting" now appeared and it developed that he had unfortunate sex affairs. With these facts ascertained the reconstructive measures may be undertaken. There must be a breaking up of old associations and new measures adapted to re-education. A good technic of medico-psychology carried out with sympathy and thoroughness will contribute greatly to the effectiveness of courts who attempt the solution of the problems of delinquency.—*William Healy and Augusta F. Bronner*. *Mental Hygiene*, III-3, July, 1919. pp. 445-452. (M.S.C.)

Probation as a Means of Reform. Last year in New York City 9,308 offenders came under the supervision of the probation officers. More than 77 per cent of these were family cases. "In salvaging the mother or father of the family it is the duty of the probation officer to care for the children also. He must look after the children until their natural protectors are ready to resume that function." The probation officers, by keeping families together and men at employment, not only save the city a financial burden but protect the child from the evil of the broken home. Ernest H. Shidler of the University of Chicago, in a study of 7,598 inmates of reformatories and industrial schools found that 50.5 per cent of delinquent boys came from broken homes.—*National Humane Review*, VIII-5, May 1920. p. 87. (E. K. B.)

Moral Defectives. This term embraces persons who commit unsocial acts by reason of mental defect. It includes two groups: (a) offenders who are feeble-minded; and (b) offenders who are defective mentally, but otherwise than intellectually. The first group constitute the defective delinquent class, and should be dealt with as feeble-minded. Individuals of the second group may be of normal intelligence, may make good records at school, and exhibit many symptoms of normality. Their defect lies in their lack of appreciation of social and moral values.

If they steal, lie, or commit sex offenses, they see no reason why they have done wrong. Their actions follow their instinctive impulses, unchecked by normal consideration of future consequences. They make heavy ultimate sacrifices for the sake of temporary gratification. The classification does not include persons whose delinquencies are of a temporary nature, or those for whom training and improved environment are corrective. The defect must be permanent; it must have existed from an early age; and it must be undeterred by punishment. It thus includes a large group of recidivistic criminals and delinquents for whom training is ineffective. These should be dealt with as defectives, in the same way in which we deal with the feeble-minded. It is the intention of the English Mental Deficiency Act to include this group with the mental variants in need of permanent segregation.—A. F. Tredgold. *Studies in Mental Inefficiency*, I-1, Jan. 1920. pp. 4-8.

(J. H. W.)

Conference for the Protection of Children Born out of Wedlock. Conferences were recently held in Chicago and in New York under the auspices of the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, in co-operation with the Inter-City Conference on Illegitimacy with a view to standardization of legislation for the protection of illegitimate children. The rights and responsibilities of the child, the mother, the father and the state were emphasized. The minimum standards agreed upon were: (1) birth registration of all illegitimates and the adjudication of paternity; (2) reporting of questionable cases to the proper public agency; (3) establishment of paternity by means of civil action if necessary; (4) requirement of the father to provide financial support for the child during its minority; (5) establishment of the child's right of inheritance and of paternal name; (6) recommendation that the mother care for the child; (7) need of state departments whose duties shall include supervision and care for such children and such mothers.—*National Humane Review*, VIII-4, April 1920. p. 67. (E. K. B.)

The Illinois Idea in Prison Management and Parole. Men committed under the Illinois parole law are required to serve at least double the time that was served under the old definite sentence law and an additional year on parole. At a recent meeting of the American Prison Congress it was practically acknowledged that the Illinois system was the best in the country. Of the offenders committed to Joliet Prison, 88 per cent are first offenders. In 1894 under the old law, the total number of commitments was twice that of last year and the per cent of first offenders was 82. It has been claimed that 90 per cent of the crime in Chicago is committed by paroled men, but the facts do not warrant such a statement. The paroled men are given adequate supervision which is worked out in full co-operation with the Chicago police force. Before the enactment of the parole law 17.5 per cent of those committed to Joliet were repeaters; now the repeaters comprise 11 per cent. In the effort to prepare prisoners for the return to society it was found that 15 per cent constituted a definitely bad factor, 25 per cent desired to get on their feet once more and the remaining 60 per cent were led by whatever element was in control. The Illinois idea of prison management is to first bring about the sort of classification of prisoners that will make possible individual attention and treatment where it is needed, "that will enable prisoners to make such progress toward fitting themselves for citizenship as they are inclined to make, with the assistance of the prison officials." The new prison provides for four distinct classes of pris-

oners, with opportunities for them to adapt themselves to a progressive merit system. Upon entrance they are assigned to a hospital section where diagnosis, mental and physical, is made. Those found to be mentally deficient are segregated and cared for in separate quarters. The normal prisoners pass on to the second section where close observation reveals their type of response and readiness for promotion to the third section. It is in this last section that they become eligible for consideration for parole or pardon. Two other groups are available through which the prisoner may pass before going out—the small villages with cottages and the farm. Each of these is supervised, but the second less than the first, and it is from the farm that the prisoner goes out on parole.—*John L. Whitman*. *Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, March 31, 1920. pp. 6-12. (E. K. B.)

Notes from State Training School for Girls, Geneva. The school department of the State Training School of Illinois consists of nine grades, including first year high school and a commercial class. Twenty per cent are in the fifth and sixth grades, eighteen per cent in the seventh and eighth grades and twelve per cent in commercial and high school. It is the intention of the school to fit such girls as are suited to hold office positions that will pay them a living wage. Every girl who displays an aptitude for any other work "is given instruction along the lines for which she seems to be adapted to the fullest extent of the facilities of the school." Of the girls who have graduated from the eighth grade and commercial class, 2 are in training for nurses, 8 are doing office work and typing and 2 are clerking. Among the girls paroled to their homes, 32 are doing factory work and 19 clerical work.—*Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, March 31, 1920. pp. 120-123. (E. K. B.)

The Parole Law and its Administration. The Division of Pardons and Paroles is under the complete control and supervision of the Director of the Department of Public Welfare. Associated with the Superintendent of Pardons and Paroles in advisory capacity are the Assistant Director of Public Welfare and the Superintendent of Prisons. There are two lines of work before the division—commutation or pardon and parole. In the matter of pardons "the Superintendent of Pardons and Parole, the Assistant Director, the Superintendent of Prisons and the State Criminologist constitute the body which hears all applications for commutation or pardon and makes recommendations to the Governor." Meetings are held quarterly. "But it is in the matter of parole that the greatest interest is manifested." Monthly meetings are held and nearly a week spent in each institution each month. All terms are indeterminate except those for treason, murder, rape and kidnapping. A first term automatically appears before the board at the end of his eleventh month. He is allowed to make a statement, his friends and family, with lawyers, may appear and his physical and mental status, as well as his prison conduct, are considered. In the event of favorable decision a sponsor, whose influence investigation has shown to be good, is selected to be in a measure responsible for the parolee. The state is divided into twelve districts, each presided over by a parole agent who visits his parolee at least monthly and knows his whereabouts constantly. Aftercare is thus a reality. In November, 1919, in District No. 1, there were on parole 219 men.—*J. E. McClure*. *Institution Quarterly* (Illinois), XI-1, Mar. 31, 1920. pp. 12-21. (E. K. B.)

Mental disorders in adolescence. During this period of transition the habits and tastes of a child are being replaced by those of the adult. These forces may find outlets in various unwholesome forms of activity which often get the boy into serious difficulty. The troubles are oftentimes extremely aggravated by a misunderstanding of the parents to the boy's adjustment. An illustrative case of a young Jewish boy is mentioned. The father of the boy was extremely harsh in his treatment, while the mother was entirely too lenient. The boy craves pleasure and emotional outlet. He finally steals from his own father to get even for the harsh treatment he has received, then becomes overcome with remorse and remains away from home for several days. This only aggravates his trouble in his home life. He continues stealing, playing truant, then staying out all night from fear because of his misdeeds. In the end he is sent to several hospitals for the insane for observation. After an open discussion of the boy's difficulties and four months' treatment at the hospital, he was returned to his home. If the boy had been differently handled at first it is doubtful if the psychosis would ever have occurred. This case represents a concrete example of the mental disturbances so frequently seen in adolescence which are due to the difficulty the individual encounters in adjusting himself to the new emotional forces which become active at this time.—*Milton A. Harrington. Mental Hygiene, IV—2, April, 1950. pp. 364-379. (M. S. C.)*

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND THE TREATMENT OF DELINQUENT CHILDREN

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In this paper the relation of the public schools to the treatment of children whose behavior is irregular is discussed from my personal point of view as a juvenile court official, and the opinions I have to state relate to the nature and regulation of child conduct only in so far as I have been able to see the facts personally in court practice. My remarks will aim to re-emphasize the present day view of sociologists that there is such a condition as incipient criminalism and that the way of approach to its effectual treatment does not necessarily lead to the juvenile court.

I shall not wish to imply that our present judicial system for the treatment of juvenile delinquency should be transferred to the educational boards, though I frankly favor withholding from court proceedings as many children as may be adequately aided and protected by a well conceived and systematically co-ordinated effort to control their moral development through the instrumentality of the public school system.

I

The most advanced conception of the law with relation to offending children we believe is this: That the child is delinquent not because of the commission of a single act which may lead to his arrest, but that he is delinquent when the sum of his behavior indicates an inclination to irregularity out of proportion to his healthful impulses.

Delinquency seldom, if ever, develops spontaneously and with sudden onset. An extensive acquaintance with the personal histories of delinquent children in any community will reveal with almost constant uniformity clearly defined prodromal symptoms which are unmistakably indicative of the oncoming misbehavior which culminates in court proceedings.

Usually the custodian of a child who becomes involved in serious misbehavior is able to cite an important group of antecedent facts which take on a new and serious meaning in the presence of an arrest. Many adults, to be sure, have only a meager acquaintance with the seemingly unimportant interests of their child's life and are unaware of any social abnormality until an act is committed which violates the rights of an individual who makes his protest to the authorities. But the subtle beginning of the irregular behavior may always be traced back beyond the event which declares that something is wrong. The study of causation has revealed the importance of these observations by indicating that juvenile delinquency is a state or attitude of mind which develops gradually and presents a series of early symptoms that are observable and which may point the way more often than we are aware to corrective treatment. This fact furnishes the strongest encouragement to the student of delinquency in suggesting the possibility of aborting delinquent careers.

Juvenile court administrators who maintain a scientific attitude toward their wards usually become clearly aware of the importance of such beginnings of waywardness. And the early indications of pathological changes in the social interest of an individual are so detectable that they may be expressed in clinical terms. No case of criminalism ever comes to maturity without running its course through a considerable period in which the symptomatology is as susceptible of analysis as are the initial stages of physical and mental diseases. We may discuss social behavior intelligently only by first recognizing social disease as a clinical entity.

A requisite then for securing results in the treatment of delinquents is to detect the social deviation and its cause early. This would appear to be easy enough, and the current popular idea is that such incipient misconduct should be speedily referred to the juvenile court. But as a matter of fact this popular misconception is producing one of the seriously important faults in court administration, and a fault that is least easily corrected.

From the beginning of the separate tribunal for children altogether too many misbehaving youngsters have been accepted for judicial consideration. It is not unfair, I think, to assert that a considerable number of the youth who in most of our communities form a ne'er-do-well group of "court children" have been so inured by court appearances that their continuing misbehavior may in part be attributed to their familiarity with court methods. This result is inevitable so

long as the community accepts the juvenile court as the one agency that is competent to consider problems of child conduct. The obligation which incipient delinquents place upon the court very naturally causes the probationary function to be used in their behalf, and the behavior of the children being so akin to the community average, the probation officer's supervision is apt to be of a desultory sort and in the end detrimental by encouraging the child to form a wrong conception of the seriousness of the court's function. Or, on the other hand, if the court agent follows after his ward with the persistent aggressiveness that should characterize his supervision, the child's parents may be expected to resent the oversight, if they do not openly declare that the court is becoming needlessly meddling. These observations, I am aware, would lead straight away into a discussion of methods of supervision, which it is not my object to provoke by this paper. However, an application of the reference may safely be made to any one of our courts and not many of my colleagues whose experience has extended through a number of years will fail to understand the accuracy of my remarks. What we need to remember with increasing care is some such adage as: Saving one child out of court is better social service than rearing two through this judicial agency.

The modern spirit happily reveals a wide acceptance of this view. And the more progressive the court, the greater reluctance is shown in giving children a court record. Therefore the modern court will not seek an early contact with delinquent children notwithstanding the fact that the experienced court official knows that effectual treatment demands, if possible, the use of corrective measures at the earliest possible moment.

What needs to be done, and is being done with increasing care in several communities, is to recognize the indications of incipient delinquency and apply corrective treatment in the form of social or personal readjustments at the earliest possible moment through the instrumentality of the schools.

When the family functions normally these early indications of waywardness are observed by parents and the greater part of the community child population is thus safeguarded by the alertness of custodians. In this acuteness of observation is expressed one of the most notable traits of efficient guardianship. And there is justification for a hopeful attitude in the fact that with all the social pressure children have to resist, only about one in a hundred slip beyond

family control and engage the serious attention of community agencies. Our responsibility relates to the care of the one per cent, and all of them are to such a degree with home control that their course of development will depend upon what we do for them.

At the outset of my professional interest in the court care of delinquents I found that the public school teachers and principals were the only substantial source of support for immediate assistance in getting an accurate view of the child whose home control had failed. In this regard I have no doubt I shared the experience of all court officers who have been more concerned with the personal traits of their wards than with the property or other interests that were violated by their misconduct. For next to the home in intimacy of relation to the child is the school.

In recalling this early observation, which has been increasingly significant through subsequent years, I remember another impression of those days when we were doing our first practicing at juvenile court field work. A zealous expression of opinion, which doubtless did more credit to my interest than to my knowledge, provoked a discussion with teachers now and then about the extent to which school agents were obligated by their professional interests to give attention to a child's career while he was away from the school premises. There was then, as at present, no sanction in law for such out-of-school relationship. But being young, with the memory of my own boyhood waywardness unsuppressed, I knew how close a relation there was between my out-of-school behavior and the obstreperousness and poor scholarship that now and then called forth the criticism of my teachers. In those conversations, and in a similar exchange of views with school people since, I have not encountered a doubt about the legitimacy of the school acquainting itself with the facts of a child's life, nor the favorable opportunity the school relationship offers for ready access to the facts. The obviousness of a decreasing mental alertness, a slump in scholarship, irregular attendance and insubordination opens the way very promptly for an inquiry concerning the cause, and an efficient teacher is not troubled by doubts about the appropriateness of locating the detrimental influence.

A difference of opinion does exist, however, concerning the amount of effort the school should expend in the investigation and treatment of pernicious factors, for the entire child, his aggregate behavior

and environment, are encountered forthwith in their inseparable relationships.

The increasing effort which the schools are slowly but surely making to meet the obligation to free every child from his handicaps that are remediable and obtain for him a maximum development has steadily strengthened my early conviction that the court should be encouraged to function in a personal relation with the child only when relief is not otherwise obtainable.

I cited the protest of teachers against adding much disciplinary responsibility to their already well-filled program. Conduct matters usually, I think, are passed up to principals, and from them also may come a just objection to any considerable increase of responsibility for the consideration of delinquent acts committed away from the school. I do not take issue with either objection. Neither teacher nor principal may fairly be expected to serve as a master of discipline to investigate a child's community acts, except in so far as the child's outside behavior is detrimental to his personal progress and his relationships to the school. And even in the care of such conduct situations which are known to have an important connection with the child's school activities, it is expedient to have the police or some other agent do any field work that may be required. Furthermore, I would equally eliminate any such responsibility from the superintendent's office and from the duties of so-called school attendance officers.

And now having so completely relieved the entire instruction and compulsory attendance staff of responsibility, I may indulge in a hope that my friends of the teaching fraternity shall not accuse me of doing them an injustice by advocating a theory which they might consider fallacious if it expanded their function and responsibility.

My opinion of what the school should do for delinquent children is based upon the clinical conception. The teaching staff, as well as the school administrators and attendance officers, will ultimately give less, rather than more, attention to the specific deed which our laws and social standards taboo. The school should have a thorough, live interest in a child's actions only in the abstract sense that his actions are symptoms of wrong developmental tendencies. The failure that characterizes much of the effort of all agencies, including families, schools and courts, to correct the social faults of childhood is in the fallacious nearsighted tendency to see only the act that violated our moral code. A school attendance officer ought to know that he hasn't captured the truant when he grips him by the collar

and leads him back to school. Nor is dishonesty as a clinical trait corrected by forcing the return of stolen goods. Locating the runaway and securing restitution both are primarily requisite to future good conduct, to be sure, but, alone, they do not amount to very much in changing the child's disposition.

II

The application of these generally accepted views in some sort of a workable plan seems to me entirely possible. In fact, I suppose my conception of what may be done in the matter has already been worked out in practice by the detached efforts of individual teachers, attendance officers and medical inspectors in various parts of the country. Concerted efforts amounting to administrative innovations have also been made in several cities and are securing notable results. Attendance departments are reshaping their standards of responsibility toward truants. Medical inspectors and nurses are increasingly interested in attendance and deportment problems, and now and then an enthusiastic worker lays claim to jurisdiction over them as medical problems. The story of what is being done might very profitably be told and the practicability of this statement would promptly be established by the record of results already secured. But no city has undertaken the application of these principles by a systematic, centralized effort, and I, therefore, can make a more useful analysis of what I conceive to be a workable plan by outlining an hypothetical scheme. For this purpose I shall have in mind a school district with an enrollment of twenty-five thousand or more.

We may assume that such a jurisdiction will have in operation an attendance department consisting of one or more field agents called truant officers. At the outset I would have such an attendance department with its reliance on ways and means which have been grafted from police methods promptly terminated. In its place I would establish a department of adjustment, to be organized as a clinical agency. The new department should be headed by one whose technical training and experience qualifies him as an expert in the analysis of behavior. He should have a substantial understanding of psychology, the physical development of children and the intimate relationships of their social life. A sufficient number of both men and women assistants should be provided for field investigations to keep the department in prompt and thorough contact with the needs of the district. Service to be efficient must be so immediately avail-

able and so aggressively maintained in every case that principals would experience no delay in securing action in behalf of any child whose conduct sets him apart from the normally behaving population of the school.

To the department should be referred all children whose behavior or whose social tendencies make them misfits in the group organization and defy the methods of correction that are within the province of the principal. This statement gives no separate recognition to delinquents as such, at least so far as terms of classification are concerned. It should be a fundamental intention to avoid, if possible, any attitude which might encourage the child to flatter himself with the distinction of being a culprit. The children of the department should be thought of only as misfits, and the solution of their difficulties should be undertaken by a painstaking analysis of their social, physical and mental condition.

Conduct is so variously influenced by mental and physical faults that the department should have a very close relation with the medical and psychological clinics that already are operating with great usefulness in most metropolitan school organizations. If such departments are not already available, provision would need to be made for medical and dental examinations and treatment, and for psychological clinical assistance. Without these aids, no real progress can be made in realizing the ideal of this scheme.

But such emphasis may leave an impression that the department would limit its efforts to laboratory methods. This is not the opinion I wish to convey, though I have abundant faith in the ability of medical and psychological science to unkink many of the troublesome social twists of childhood. The laboratory method is fundamental to the plan I propose, but it should be used only to the extent that it serves a practical purpose. After all, I think we may at times lose sight of the fact that a skillful person may do a perfectly good physical or mental examination and make use of creditable technique, and do it all in such a sympathetic, agreeable manner that the child will find the experience very much more agreeable and confidence inspiring than he will the ordinary social interview. There really is no danger at all of losing the so-called "human touch" by being systematic.

Having asserted at the outset that the opinions I hold are a product of my experience in attempting to regulate child behavior through the juvenile court, I may reasonably hope that my views are

not without some practical value. Their application by the procedure suggested will work out problems of delinquency with more success than we are able to do in the juvenile court, but the school organization may not hope to provide complete adjustment for all cases.

There will always be children present for consideration who are involved in family and other environmental situations which make it necessary to secure a change of custody. Such treatment by adjudication, obviously, may only be provided by the courts. In these cases the school agent would represent the child in any proceeding which might be carried over from the department into the court.

In conclusion, the application of this plan for the treatment of delinquent children by the schools should in no way interfere with the established rights of the police or the juvenile court. I make no pretense, however, of concealing an assurance that the beneficial effect of such a plan, well administered, will so decrease the troubles of those agencies, that both may in time be forced to notice that boys seem not to be so bad as in the old days.

INTELLIGENCE AND INDUSTRIAL TESTS IN INSTITUTIONAL ADMINISTRATION¹

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The need for psychological study of institutional populations is so obvious that one is astonished that such work has been so long delayed. It is now generally agreed that knowledge of the mental abilities of institutional inmates must be had in order to serve their best interests. It is not merely *desirable* that psychological tests be employed in state institutions, it is absolutely imperative. These institutions cannot hope to live up to their best possibilities unless a sorting of inmates upon a psychological basis is effectively in operation.

Let us concede the desirability of employing mental tests for the classification of inmates of institutions. This fact is now being recognized by business organizations, which have gone beyond the analysis of their physical materials and are now carefully considering the analysis of their operatives. Many institutions have long conceded the desirability of employing mental tests, but have been prohibited from developing this work to its fullest scope because of the expense involved, the great amount of time required and the supposed impracticability of utilizing the results. All of these difficulties have been real. They have been overcome, however, in a large measure by the development of new procedures as the result of psychological service in the Army. By means of the group tests of intelligence, which were developed for Army purposes, it is now possible to survey an entire institution with respect to its intellectual composition in one day of examining. These group tests are so simple that they can be given by nearly any intelligent person after a certain amount of training. They are so efficient that they can be scored by clerks after a half-day's initiation. The interpretation of results, of course, calls for special psychological training.

As the result of applying such tests, one finds very quickly the general composition of an institutional population from the standpoint

1. Read at the joint meeting of the American Association of Public Officials and the National Conference on the Education of Truant, Backward and Delinquent Children, Chicago, June 22, 1920.

of general intelligence. The Army group test will furnish an intelligence rating of each inmate with a very high degree of accuracy. It will make possible a classification of institutional inmates on the basis of their most important single characteristic. It will by no means give all of the desirable information regarding each inmate but it will give the most important single item.

It is now generally conceded that a man's mental age is the most important single consideration in his institutional classification. Formerly, it required at least one hour of time by an expertly trained examiner before this mental age could be determined. The expense and time incident to this type of examination made psychological tests impractical for daily use. This furnished some excuse for not making wider use of such tests. That defect has now been overcome. The expense now involved is a negligible consideration in view of the fundamental importance of the results obtained. We still need tests for illiterate adults but the prospects of soon having them are good.

As the result of applying the Army group test to the correctional institutions of New Jersey we have been able in a year's time to comprehend the special administrative problems involved in each of five institutions so far as their problems relate to the mental capacities of the inmates. At the New Jersey State Prison, for example, the entire population available for examination, 800 men, was examined in one day. Within a week a statistical report of results was presented. This indicated that the typical New Jersey state prisoner is not a mental defective. On the contrary he is only slightly inferior in general intelligence to the adult males of the state at large². A similar survey of the state institutions for juvenile delinquent boys on the other hand, indicated that certainly one-quarter of that institution's population could safely be considered as feeble-minded, while an additional one-half were of decidedly inferior average intelligence. Only a very small percentage of the state's juvenile delinquent boys proved to be above the average in general intelligence. These very significant facts were established as the result of hardly more than a month's full work by one examiner with limited clerical assistance. The contrast of institutional problems presented by the State Prison on the one hand and the State Home for Boys on the other, is sufficiently great to indicate the vital importance of psychological surveys of institutional populations. An institution for juve-

2. Cf. "*The Comparative Intelligence of Prisoners*" by Edgar A. Doll, Jour. Crim. Law and Criminology, July, 1920.

nile delinquents, which contains 25 per cent of mental defectives, cannot hope to realize the aims and ideals for which it was founded; it cannot hope to provide effective school training or vocational education for inmates who are so distinctly subnormal in mental abilities. When the facts can be discovered so easily and so quickly, there is little excuse left for neglecting to discover these mentally defective inmates and provide the best possible facilities for their treatment and welfare. It is not sufficient to segregate or classify these mentally defective delinquents within the institution for delinquents. These feeble-minded can be made self-supporting but not self-controlling.

Nearly every institution has an academic school. Very few institutions pay much attention to the mental ability of the inmates who are sent to these schools for instruction. Without a knowledge of the mental powers of the individuals sent to school, it is not possible to predict what degree of success can be obtained from the educational opportunities offered. It also is not possible to know what progress pupils *can* make, *should* make or *will* make. Yet by means of simple mental tests it is now possible to predict, with a very high degree of accuracy, the amount of profit which may be gained by an individual pupil from attendance at an academic institutional school, and to indicate the kind and amount of instruction needed. The trained psychologist is able to discriminate between illiteracy due to lack of opportunity and illiteracy due to lack of intelligence. He is able to recommend to the school director those persons who will profit best from attendance at school and to recommend the elimination of those for whom further schooling is hopeless. Many institutional schools waste about 50 per cent of their energies upon pupils who cannot possibly profit, to any material degree, from the instruction which is offered them.

By means of well applied mental tests, the psychologist is further able to distinguish between those mental types who can profit from academic school instruction and those who can profit from manual or vocational education. For this purpose the trained psychologist distinguishes between the verbal and manual types. The verbal type is able to understand abstract ideas conveyed by language; he is able to learn general principles in the absence of concrete materials; he is able to plan on an abstract basis. The manual type, however, is essentially concrete in all his thinking and actions. He plans step by step with comparatively little foresight; he cannot deal with verbal instructions, although he may be very successful in act-

ual doing. Too frequently the verbalist type does not become sufficiently well developed in actual productive capacities and too frequently the manual type is held down to a daily routine of monotonous labor. If these types are recognized and properly instructed, the verbal type can be rendered more effective socially in his constructive abilities and the manual type can be raised to a higher social and vocational level by means of educative handwork.

On a psychological basis it is possible, therefore, to distinguish between those institutional inmates who can profit from academic school instruction, those who can profit from vocational education and those who can profit only from industrial training. A distinction must be made between vocational education and industrial training. The purpose of vocational education is to develop an individual by means of concrete instruction. This applies particularly to the manual type, who gets very little from book instruction or from teaching based on abstract principles. Industrial training, however, provides only specific knowledge or skill in special trade processes. A man so trained is limited to the definite things which he has been taught or has acquired; he has but little versatility, he does not understand his trade as a whole, he has not been socially developed. He is consequently limited to productive capacity of a special sort. Vocational education, however, develops an individual to a well-rounded conception of his place in society and in industry; it provides the means of general education and it gives elementary knowledge of a variety of trade processes. It is not the purpose of vocational education to impart any high degree of specific industrial skill; its fundamental purpose, on the contrary, is to impart trade information, to give knowledge of the relations of one trade process to another, of one industry to another and of the relation of industry to society at large.

Is it possible for the psychologist to contribute anything to the vocational and industrial policies of an institution? The answer is unquestionably, yes. The psychologist can distinguish between those who will profit from education in industry and those who can acquire only trade skill. He also can determine the mental limitations of individuals in regard to vocational or industrial development; he can determine, in some degree, the special vocational aptitudes which are inherent in institutional inmates; he can determine the type of instruction best suited to these inmates; he can estimate the temperamental qualities which may lead to success or which are liable to induce failure. He also is able, with a fair degree of success, to

measure the various degrees of trade skill and thereby to determine the daily progress of individuals as the result of instruction or training.

An institution cannot hope to develop its educational and industrial policies and facilities without a thorough understanding of the various psychological factors involved in the composition of the population. When an institution has a large percentage of feeble-mindedness, it is futile to attempt to install systems of education or training which demand normal intelligence. When an institution has a very heavy percentage of inmates who are intellectually inferior or emotionally unstable, that institution cannot be expected to accomplish the same results as another institution which has a high percentage of average or superior intelligence or a group of inmates who are temperamentally stable. If it is a question of installing a new industry in an institution or of extending the school facilities or of modifying the type of instruction, such changes cannot intelligently be made without consideration of the number and type of inmates whom these changes will serve. The psychologist, therefore, is a very important member of the consulting staff of any institutional superintendent or board of managers.

As an example of the particular service which can be rendered by the psychologist in the state institutions, let me cite the results of an industrial survey made in the New Jersey State Prison³. The psychologist was called upon to make recommendations regarding the educational, industrial and vocational possibilities of each man, to estimate his trustworthiness from the standpoint of mental make-up and to recommend him for suitable occupational assignment. In order to accomplish this, it was necessary to make an analysis of all the occupations within the institution. The first step was to list the shops and their particular requirements. As the result of preliminary analysis, the psychologist was able to grade the occupational shops on a scale of 5, as very inferior, inferior, average, superior and very superior. The grading of each shop as a whole was based upon the number and type of men employed within the shop. Necessarily, there was a good deal of overlapping; some high grade men were necessarily in shops classified as inferior and some low grade men were necessarily in shops classified as superior. The prison road work, for example, as a general occupation was classed as inferior from

3. Cf. *Annual Report for the Year 1919-1920*, New Jersey State Prison, Trenton, N. J.

the standpoint of the qualifications needed by the men so employed. This was because the vast majority of the men in the road camps were assigned to unskilled physical labor. Only a small percentage of highly skilled industrial occupations were afforded. The state prison print shop, on the other hand, was rated as very superior. This is because the work of the shop calls for a relatively high degree of education, intelligence, responsibility, skill and individual initiative on the part of the majority of men employed. In this shop only a small number of unskilled men could be used.

Following this classification of the shops as units, each shop was analyzed with respect to the detailed work processes and operations within the shop. These specific processes were also graded on the scale of 5 as calling for grades of industrial competence which could be rated as very inferior, inferior, average, superior and very superior. The analysis was made upon the basis of the men now successfully employed in these operations within each shop. The number of men employed in each work unit and the general intelligence, education, responsibility and industrial skill required were considered in determining the rating of the work. These work processes have all been grouped for the prison as a whole. The psychologist consequently knows how many men are employed in each process of each industry and the qualifications which are necessary for a man successfully to fill these positions. The psychologist examines each man on his admission to the prison and determines by special tests his qualifications in these several particulars. Knowing the requirements of the jobs and the qualifications of the men available for work or vocational development, he is in a position, intelligently and scientifically, to recommend specific assignments to particular jobs or to make general recommendations for a group of jobs in which a man is competent to succeed. These recommendations serve two purposes. On the one hand they indicate the work unit for which a man already has a definite degree of industrial skill as measured by his industrial history and trade ability. On the other hand, they indicate a range of occupations for which a man may be vocationally developed, but in which he has at the time no definite degree of trade skill.

The third step in the industrial analysis of occupations at the state prison will be to determine the sub-processes within each work unit of each shop. A man who qualifies for a particular trade must be competent in all of the elements of that trade. It is therefore necessary to analyze all the operations within a shop from a standpoint

of the elements which constitute the total work of that shop. This work has not yet been attempted at the New Jersey State Prison, but it soon will be attempted. When it is completed, it should provide a basis for reorganization of the shops from the standpoint of their vocational possibilities. This analysis will provide the basis for improving the courses of instruction offered for developing well-rounded tradesmen.

The principal need of industrial training of the present day is to get away from industrial specialization of the mechanical sort. We are in grave danger at the present time of industrial disorganization, due to the fact that there are too many trade specialists and too few journeymen tradesmen. It is imperative that men have sufficient training in a trade to provide for shifts in occupational units due to changing conditions within a shop or within an industry. The days of the apprentice system as we have known it are nearly gone and probably will not return. As trade specialists or machine specialists young men can earn such high wages that they refuse to go through the slow steps now demanded of trade apprentices. This defect of our present industrial system can be overcome, however, by making the apprentice system more effective. This can be accomplished by making analytical classifications of all the processes and sub-processes within a trade unit. On this basis the organization of any shop can be made so effective that a man can progress through the various steps of any industry and acquire trade skill and at the same time be sufficiently productive at each stage to earn good wages.

The means for improving industrial instruction in a shop without interfering with the routine production of the shop are well described by Mr. John S. Leech, formerly Director of Printing in the Philippines. He says:

"To be effective, vocational training must be of a practical nature which will properly fit the student-apprentice as a journeyman. The method of instruction must be based on an analytical study of the trade and all of its branches, each working operation, as a result of the analysis, to be segregated into units and subunits, which, in turn, must be systematically arranged into progressive classes so that the mind of the student-apprentice can readily grasp their mutual relevancy.

"The efficacy and practicability of the following system have been thoroughly established (in the Bureau of Printing) and conclusively show the advantages of system over chaos in industrial instruction.

"The component parts of all the correlative branches of a trade are

analyzed, and the working operations, whether performed by machine or hand, of each division of the trade are segregated into *units* and *subunits*. The *units* and *subunits*, in the order of their relative importance, are grouped into classes, forming a systematic and coordinate sequence of instruction. A progressive schedule is thus provided—a step-by-step advancement which is as necessary to proper industrial education as are the finger exercises in the acquirement of the finished technique of the expert musician.

“The system is effective because it standardizes *technical* training by the adoption of a concise but comprehensive method of instruction, imparted in the orderly progression of an invariable schedule.

“This system of training is commercially practicable in that it may be introduced into a manufacturing plant of any kind without perceptible change in its regular routine.

“This systematization will make a craftsman competent in any of the skilled trades.”

With respect to the vocational education of juveniles in state institutions we have a very much more difficult problem. It is extremely difficult to determine the vocational aptitudes of children under the age of 14 years. It is a question as to whether these aptitudes should be industrially developed so early in life. Before the age of 15, very few children have obtained that degree of maturity or development which is necessary to indicate their future social and vocational possibilities. These children are still growing; their interests, habits and abilities are potential rather than fixed. It is, therefore, necessary to provide for such inmates, general education of the sort which will prove most effective for them later in life. Consequently, the emphasis in vocational development must be on the educative side. Definite vocational work should be provided only as a means of general education and of trade training. Vocational education is absolutely necessary for the proper social development of the manual type of child. This child profits so little from ordinary book instruction or formal teaching based on abstract principles that he fails to learn unless other educational devices are provided for him. Vocational instruction provides both the means and the incentive for such children to extend their educative period. Such children ordinarily fail to profit from instruction in school, but can be materially improved in a vocational school. This vocational work must provide certain fundamentals of educative instruction, but it must be provided on a concrete basis in relation to the work of

every-day life and not upon abstract teaching based only on general principles. Vocational education in the public schools of today is very much to be commended so long as it remains educational, that is to say, so long as it develops the individual for a higher place in the social order than he otherwise would occupy. Vocational training, however, will prove to be a positive evil if it neglects its educative possibilities and emphasizes too much or too early the preliminary aspects of trade training only.

We may conclude then as follows:

1. It is now possible to apply psychological tests to institutional populations with a minimum of expense and time and with a high degree of accuracy and practical profit.

2. The results of such tests are absolutely fundamental to the intelligent management of an institution, since otherwise one must rely upon trial and error methods, rather than upon scientific prediction and classification.

3. The results of such tests lead to the formulation of institutional policies regarding the disciplinary disposition or educational development of institutional inmates and indicate the most profitable lines of education and training which can be followed.

4. It is possible to analyze school courses of study, educational methods and occupational shops with a view to improving the efficiency of the means and methods provided for the welfare and development of institutional inmates.

5. It is possible, as the result of detailed industrial analysis, to extend and improve the industrial and vocational training now afforded by institutional shops.

6. It is possible to distinguish between verbal and manual types of children and adults and on this basis to discriminate between the kinds and degrees of educational or industrial development that are possible in each case.

EXCITABILITY IN DELINQUENT BOYS

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Individual differences in temperament, particularly with reference to its expression in mood, are readily recognized through ordinary observations. Many individuals retain a certain average of normal temperament, while others show an increased activity and highly elated emotional state; in others the condition will vary from the excited to the depressed. Dr. Davenport (2) found when both parents are liable to excited spells without corresponding depressed spells, children of the same sort are to be expected. When one parent is of a choleric temperament and the other of a nervous temperament, the children will be either choleric or nervous. When neither parent is excitable, none of the children are excitable. Dr. Adler (1), in his discussion of excitability, says that the intelligence of these individuals is, as a rule, above the average. The most prominent characteristic is naturally a strong emotional instability. Dr. Healy (5), in studies of juvenile offenders, found a greater percentage of excitability among the boys than among the girls. He finds 22 per cent of the boys excitable, while the data for this study show 37 per cent excitable.

DEFINITION

For the purpose of this study, excitability is considered an emotional state characterized by a loss or weakening of inhibitory control, to such an extent that some form of irregular conduct results. The classification by Southard (6) includes the following behavioristic elements: destructiveness, homicidal tendencies, irritability, psycho-motor excitement, and violence. We shall include also violent temper, the hysterical state, and the marked lachrymose state.

Destructiveness refers to the wilful destruction of property. In juvenile delinquency the destruction is usually on a small scale, and seldom involves large values. Exceptional instances, however, include serious damage.

Homicidal tendencies include serious personal assaults, usually with intent to do great bodily harm. It includes habitual fighting and killing.

Irritability refers to a marked tendency (habitual and characteristic, not of an incidental sort) to be peevish, irascible, easily annoyed, always ready to take offense, being "touchy" and inability to accept ordinary reprimand.

Psycho-motor excitement refers to extreme unco-ordinated motion and marked nervousness. It is characterized by a weakness of muscular control, and may take on the form of tics or habit spasms. It includes shaking, twitching, etc.

Violence includes behavior in which the individual becomes dangerous in any way, not otherwise classified.

Violent temper refers to absolute release of feelings of anger and temporary loss of all restraint or inhibitory power.

Hysterical refers to the loss of control of the emotions without sufficient cause. It is characterized by fits of laughing, crying, etc.

Lachrymose refers to the uncontrolled shedding of tears, particularly without cause.

Strict adherence to this classification has been followed and no boy in this study is considered excitable unless he appears in one or more of the foregoing groups. When the relatives of the boys are recorded for excitability and non-excitability, there cannot be as sharply a defined line between the two due to the necessity for relying upon less extensive information. The personal judgment of the writer will have to be accepted for the final classification.

Dr. Davenport (2) says that we recognize a certain average of normal temperament, and that, in many persons, the mood is often associated with an increased activity and lowered emotional tone; while still others pass through alternating cycles of hyperactivity and depression. He discusses particularly the hyperkinetic state of which the lesser grade is called nervous (sometimes sanguine), the more developed grade choleric. The nervous person is active, energetic, irritable, excitable, ambitious, given to planning, optimistic, usually talkative and jolly. The choleric person is over-active, starts on new lines of work before completing the old, brags, is usually hilarious, hypererotic, often profane, liable to violent fits of anger, brutal, destructive, assaultive, and even homicidal. Excitability, within the meaning used in this study, refers to emotional states indicating the Davenport description of hyperkinesis. The state occurs in varying degrees, but particular interest is attached to the more marked degrees, especially those related to unsocial conduct.

METHOD

An unselected list of one hundred of the most recent

cases of boys for whom we have prepared family histories was chosen. In reading and studying the histories of these boys, there was quite an opportunity to note under which item in our histories the several forms of excitability were to be found. It might here be stated that the histories are prepared according to an outline of thirteen items under which a detailed description of the boy's personal relationship to each item is considered. The items are: intelligence; temperament; other mental conditions; physical condition; moral character; conduct; associates; amusements; education; vocational record; home conditions; and neighborhood conditions. One would expect to find most of the information on excitability under temperament, but this was not found to be entirely true, although the largest proportion came under that heading. There were cases in which, to justify inclusion in the list, it was necessary to analyze *conduct*, *amusements* and *physical condition*.

In no case was a boy classified as excitable when the tendency was pathological or bordering on insanity. The difference, however, is more in degree than in type. "The most significant symptoms," according to Dr. Terman (7), "are emotional and volitional." The nervous child is apt to be unstable in its emotional life, easily turned from laughter to tears, quick to anger, irritable, peevish, etc. There is a constant hunger for excitement and distraction is sought in a variety of stimulation.

DISTRIBUTION OF CASES

It was found that 37 per cent of this unselected group were definitely excitable with varying forms as found in our definition. The order of frequency in which the different forms occurred can be seen in Fig. 1. The excitability in any case might, of course, take one or more of the forms. In one case three forms were shown, in six cases two forms, while in thirty cases but one form was evidenced. It can be readily seen that irritability was most frequent, it being found in 16 per cent of the cases, while violent temper and destructiveness were the least frequent. The hysterical form was never found in the propositus nor in any of the male sex, although it was occasionally found among the female relatives. Psycho-motor excitement appears in 7 per cent of the cases; homicidal tendencies in 6 per cent; exaltation in 5 per cent; violence in 4 per cent; lachrymose in 3 per cent; destructiveness and violent temper each in 2 per cent. The one instance in which three forms were

found showed exaltation, the lachrymose state and psycho-motor excitement. A brief description of this case and one with two forms and the one form alone, will best illustrate the findings:

Case 1. (3 forms) Was always a nervous boy, over-active, noticeable in his speech and manner. Drums on the table with his fingers. Is quick tempered and cries easily along with his excitability. As an outcome of his pronounced nervous energy, he is quick to respond. He was always hard to manage. Was impulsive, quarrelsome, subject to periods of disobedience and laziness, followed by periods of extremely good behavior. Attacks his work with a force which again suggests his nervous energy. Is highly imaginative. Because of this imagination, pride and suggestibility, he is given to much exaggeration and false boasting in regard to his delinquent acts. Stutters on occasions.

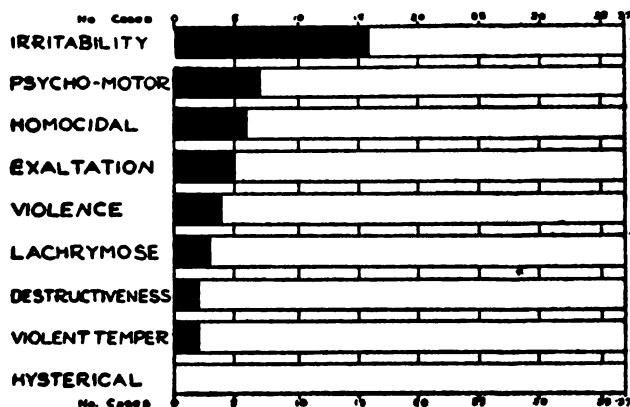


Fig. 1. Distribution of forms of excitability (shaded areas) as found among the 37 excitable boys.

Case 2. (2 forms) Is extremely stubborn and antagonistic. Excitable by spells; has fits of temper when he is almost beside himself. Is found to be fidgety and to lose interest quickly while in school. Has a good opinion of himself; thinks that he is very wise and is quite a bully. Undoubtedly likes to show off and make a big impression.

Case 3. (1 form) Is excitable, associated with nervousness. Very unstable emotionally. Breaks down with tears when his unfortunate experiences are rehearsed. Shows same tendency to cry when he gets nervous in trade detail. Has a nervous affliction which resem-

bles St. Vitus dance, but this nervous agitation may be merely a habit spasm.

The recent publication of excitability statistics in connection with public school surveys* permits of some comparison. The Salt Lake survey found 10 per cent of the pupils in that city *noticeably nervous*, according to observations made by the teachers in the schools. The Boise survey found 167 out of 2456, or nearly 7 per cent, nervous or excitable. The Santa Ana and Bakersfield surveys found 21.5 and 7.2 per cent, respectively, of the pupils in those cities to be excitable. A survey of 470 delinquent boys in California institutions (9) reported that 42 per cent were *nervous*, according to the observations of the school physician. It would appear, therefore, that this tendency is much more common among delinquents than in the regular public school population.

TABLE I. NUMBER OF OFFENSES SHOWING EXCITABILITY IN
DR. HEALY'S STUDY OF 1000 JUVENILE OFFENDERS.

	Boys	Girls
Fighting	42	0
Violence	40	16
Destructiveness	23	0
Violent temper	21	18
Cruelty	11	1
Setting fires	11	3
Homicidal tendencies	8	15
Total number excitable	156	53
Total number of cases	694	306
Per cent excitable	22	17

Dr. Healy (5) found a number of offenses among 1000 juvenile offenders which show the tendencies of excitability as found in our definition. In Table I is shown the offenses of the repeaters as charged in court and as obtained from the stories of the parents, and others. Among the 694 boys, 156, or 22 per cent, were excitable. In the cases of 306 girls, 53, or 17 per cent, were excitable. In this case there is a greater percentage of excitability among delinquent boys than among the girls.

OFFENSES

A distribution of the offenses with the frequency in which they occur among the excitable and non-excitable boys in this

*The Salt Lake City and Boise surveys are published by the World Book Co., New York. The Santa Ana and Bakersfield surveys are published by Whittier State School, Department of Research.

study is shown in Fig. 2. It will be observed that stealing occurs oftener than any other offense, but is more frequent among the non-excitable boys, as, in fact, are all the offenses with the exception of arson and assault. Highway robbery did not occur in any of the one hundred cases in this study.

There was but one instance of arson and the boy was excitable, consequently it made the amount of excitability 100 per cent in that offense. While the proportion might have held with a larger number of cases, no significance can be attached to this single instance. Excitability occurred in 50 per cent of those committing sex offenses; 66 per cent in drunkenness, and 67 per cent in assault. Forty per cent of the number of those committing the offenses of burglary,

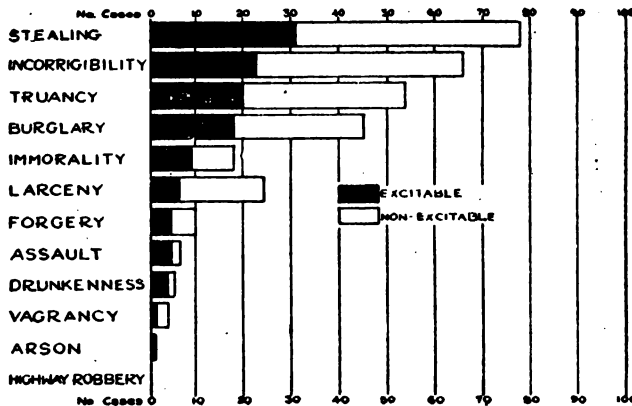


Fig. 2. Distribution of excitable and non-excitable cases in relation to offenses.

stealing and forgery were excitable; while truancy has 37 per cent, incorrigibility 35 per cent, and larceny and vagrancy 25 per cent. We can therefore assume from these figures that those committing offenses of vagrancy and larceny tend to be nearer the normal temperamental state than those committing offenses of immorality, drunkenness and assault.

Table II shows the distribution of offenses as they occur among the excitable group of boys. There are twelve definite kinds of offenses which may be committed by delinquent boys. The greatest number of offenses was 6, this applying to only one boy; while two had 5 offenses, nine had 4 offenses, eighteen had 3 offenses, five had 2 offenses and two had only one kind of offense. Those having but

TABLE II. DISTRIBUTION OF OFFENSES COMMITTED BY EACH BOY IN THE EXCITABLE GROUP.

No.	No. of offenses	Stealing	Burglary	Larceny	Immorality	Drunkenness	Incorrigibility	Treachery	Highway robbery	Vagrancy	Forgery	Assault	Arson
1	6	X	X	X	X		X	X					
2	5	X	X			X	X	X					
3	5	X	X		X		X	X					
4	4	X	X				X				X		
5	4	X	X				X	X					
6	4	X			X		X	X					
7	4	X	X				X	X					
8	4	X	X				X	X					
9	4		X			X	X	X					
10	4	X	X		X			X					
11	4	X	X		X		X						
12	4	X	X				X	X					
13	3	X		X			X						
14	3			X	X			X					
15	3	X	X		X								
16	3	X	X								X		
17	3	X					X	X					
18	3	X					X	X					
19	3	X			X		X						
20	3	X						X			X		
21	3	X					X	X					
22	3	X	X					X					
23	3	X				X	X						
24	3	X	X									X	
25	3	X					X	X					
26	3	X					X	X					
27	3	X	X				X						
28	3	X	X					X					
29	3	X					X					X	
30	3	X			X							X	
31	2			X				X					
32	2	X		X									
33	2			X			X						
34	2	X	X										
35	2	X								X			
36	2												X
37	1						X						
Totals:		31	18	6	9	2	23	20	0	1	3	3	1

one kind of offense may have committed it any number of times, but his delinquent tendencies may never have taken any of the other eleven forms, while the boy having six offenses may have committed one or two of them only once, while the remainder may have been committed regularly by him whenever the opportunity presented itself.

INTELLIGENCE

Fig. 3 shows the distribution of intelligence quotients among the one hundred boys. It will be noticed that excitability does not occur with certain intelligence quotients, but this might not be true for a greater number of cases. The median intelligence quotient for the excitable group is .87, and for the non-excitable group .86. Out of 22 feeble-minded boys five, or 23 per cent, are excitable, while in the superior group of seven boys four, or 57 per cent, are excitable.

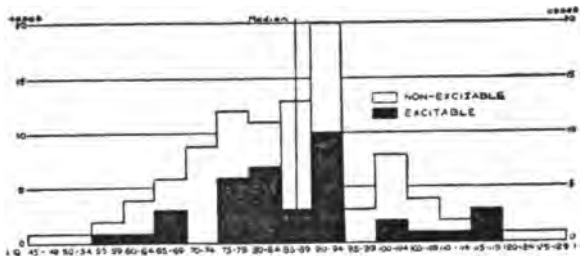


Fig. 3. Distribution of intelligence quotients among the total number of cases excitable and non-excitable.

Dr. Goddard (3) says, "the sanguine and the choleric feeble-minded persons are the ones who are most apt to get into trouble and be the most serious menace to society; while the phlegmatic and melancholic are much less dangerous. The problem has not, as yet, been studied in connection with the feeble-minded, although it is evident that these temperaments are all found among these people and have marked influence upon their social career and bearing; and in that connection are of great importance in the whole question of what is to be the solution of the feeble-minded problem."

Of special interest is Dr. Goddard's mention elsewhere (4) of temperament in connection with a discussion of the criminal. Whether the feeble-minded person actually becomes a criminal depends upon two factors; his temperament and his environment. If he is of a

quiet phlegmatic temperament with thoroughly weakened impulses, he may never be impelled to do anything seriously wrong. In this case when he cannot earn a living he will starve to death unless philanthropic people provide for him. On the other hand, if he is a nervous, excitable, impulsive person, he is almost sure to turn in the direction of criminality. Fortunately for the welfare of society the feeble-minded person as a rule lacks energy. But whatever his temperament, in a bad environment he may still become a criminal, the phlegmatic temperament becoming simply the dupe of more intelligent criminals, while the excitable, nervous, impulsive, feeble-minded person may escape criminality if his necessities are provided for, and his impulses and energies are turned in a wholesome direction.

RACIAL DIFFERENCES

Classifying the boys according to race, we find that the Mexican is more prone to excitability than white or colored boys.

TABLE III. NUMBER AND PER CENT OF EXCITABLE AND NON-EXCITABLE DELINQUENT BOYS ACCORDING TO RACE

	Number Excitable	Per Cent Excitable	Number Not Excitable	Per Cent Not Excitable	Total Number of Boys
White	26	34.6	49	65.4	75
Colored	6	35.2	11	64.8	17
Mexican	5	62.5	3	37.5	8
Totals	37	37.0	63	63.0	100

However, the total number of cases for the colored and Mexican boys is too low to justify any sweeping conclusions regarding excitability in relation to race. From these percentages, it appears that the colored and Mexican delinquent boys are more apt to be excitable than the delinquent white boy. Dr. Williams (8) in reporting the survey of Santa Ana School children, found that the phlegmatic state was more common than the excitable state among the Mexican children, while the condition for white children was exactly the reverse.

HEREDITY

The frequency of excitability in the fraternity, parents and grandparents of the 37 excitable and the 63 non-excitable boys is shown in Table IV and V. In Table VI is shown the relationship of excitability to heredity. We find a far greater tendency toward excitability in the fraternity of the excitable group. The mothers of excitable boys tend to be excitable more often than the

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF FRATERNITY, PARENTS AND GRANDPARENTS EXCITABLE AMONG THE 37 EXCITABLE BOYS.

	Frater- nity	Father	Mother	Father's Father	Father's Mother	Mother's Father	Mother's Mother
Excitable	52	14	17	3	0	4	1
Not excitable	43	12	6	5	6	5	3
Doubtful	18	4	6	1	1	1	3
No data	20	7	8	28	30	27	30
Total	133	37	37	37	37	37	37

fathers, while in the non-excitable group, the fathers tends to be excitable more often than the mothers.

Dr. Davenport (2) cites numerous examples of the inheritance of temperament. He concludes that "if either parent is choleric, then all the children will be choleric or nervous. If either parent is steadily 'cheerful', then none of the children will be depressed. If both parents are steadily calm, then none of the offspring will be choleric or nervous. If both parents are melancholic, then none of the children will be cheerful." He has been able to study thoroughly

TABLE V. NUMBER OF FRATERNITY, PARENTS AND GRANDPARENTS EXCITABLE AMONG THE 63 NON-EXCITABLE BOYS.

	Frater- nity	Father	Mother	Father's Father	Father's Mother	Mother's Father	Mother's Mother
Excitable	9	15	11	3	8	2	4
Not excitable	193	30	36	4	4	13	7
Doubtful	20	10	5	3	5	2	1
No data	39	8	11	53	51	46	51
Total	261	63	63	63	63	63	63

the inheritance of temperament in individual case studies and his results are significant in their showing of the relationship of temperament to heredity.

TABLE VI. PER CENT OF EXCITABILITY AMONG THE FRATERNITY AND PARENTS.

	Fraternity	Father	Mother
Excitable group	39.0	37.9	45.8
Non-excitable group	3.4	23.8	17.4

The inheritance of excitability in our cases is shown in the accompanying family charts. These represent families in which the occurrence of the trait is especially noticeable. The figures represent pedigree charts of the families studied. Each chart is accompanied by a descriptive paragraph. In these charts the earlier generations are placed above, the younger ones below. Square symbols represent

males, circles females. Fraternities of full brothers and sisters are connected by a horizontal line lying above the symbols. The longer vertical lines connect parents with the fraternity of their offspring. The shaded symbols represent the presence of excitability. The following abbreviations are used: *I*, insanity; *E*, epilepsy; *F*, feeble-minded; *X*, lack of knowledge concerning temperament; *N*, the normal temperament; *d. inf.*, died in infancy; *d. y.*, died young.

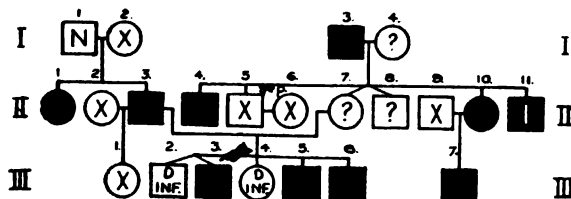


Fig. 4. Family of 183.

Fig 4. I-1, very poor. Cool headed. I-2, first cousin to her husband. Was a very good woman. I-3, excitable, very harsh and stern. Was non-communicative. Taught school and had good executive power. I-4, reported to have been insane. Writes ranting letters about her own daughter. II-1, rather hysterical and unreasonable. Has a good business head. Teaches music. II-3, educated himself and was admitted to the bar. Teaches school. Is also a minister. Was born a predestinarian Baptist. Shifts from one religion to another. Is very changeable and has a temper. Is a good fighter. A slave to his passions and definitely immoral. Married a second time without a divorce from first wife. Has lived with several women. II-4, resented his father's constant beating him, so left home. Two years later was brought home dead as a result of a quarrel over a girl. He was shot. II-5, married a woman much older than himself from whom he separated. II-7, nervous and high strung. Gullible. Rather easy going, not excitable, but quite cool-headed. Is accused of neglecting children and home for her religion. II-8, a sex pervert; committed sodomy on III-7. Was sterilized eleven years ago. II-9, deserted his wife. II-10, excitable and emotional. Can't sleep at night because of worries. II-11, contracted fever and mind was affected. Would leave position, trunk and all belongings and go away. Subject to periods of mental amnesia. III-2, died when one week old. III-3, diagnosed as excitable. Is nervous, over-active, noticeable in speech and manner. Drums on table with fingers. Is quick-tempered and cries easily along with his excitability. As an outcome of his pronounced nervous energy he is quick to respond. Was always strong willed and hard to manage. Found to be impulsive and quarrelsome, subject to periods of disobedience and laziness, followed by periods of extremely good behavior. Attacks his work with a force that again suggests his nervous energy; this does not hold true if he is not interested in his tasks. Is highly imaginative. Because of this imagination, pride and suggestibility, he is given to much exaggeration and false boasting. Nervous system shows disturbance at times, as evinced by his stuttering. III-4, died age 3 months. III-5, mischievous and nervous. A rest-

less tendency would develop and he would prepare to run away. His mother was unable to care for him. III-6, exceedingly nervous. Has spasmodic twitching of eyelids, bites nails. Is also a bed-wetter. Given to much self-abuse. Had congenital syphilis. Was beyond control of his mother. III-7, very nervous for some time and has been troubled with asthma. Is irritable and willful.

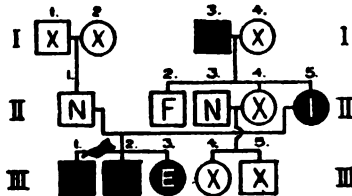


Fig. 5. Family of 180.

Fig. 5. I-1 died when his son was 18 years old. No further information. I-2, died when son was 4 years old. I-3, nervous. Died 3 years ago. I-4, died when II-5 was born. II-1, mild and not hot tempered. Rather a strict disciplinarian and has at times beat propositus, is inconsistent in his punishment and rather erratic. Becomes discouraged. II-2, always a little off. Has been in institution for some years. Not insane, but not right mentally. His deficiency is easily recognized. II-3, a plumber of jovial disposition. II-4, in good health as far as known. II-5, never very bright. Was nervous, also in habit of drinking nine or ten cups of coffee after each meal. Never drank liquor before her marriage, but afterwards drank "whenever she could get it." After death of her second child she had a nervous break-down. She drank steadily for three years prior to her death. During these three years she would do nothing, just sat in her chair day in and day out. Was sent to hospital for the insane six months prior to her death. Gradually failed mentally after a miscarriage. Was much depressed, disoriented and confused. III-1, his difficulties are almost entirely temperamental; evidences of flightiness, nervousness and unstable mood. While he is considered excitable he is not fidgety, showing the results of intellectual inhibition. He is subject to irrational conduct when his weakness of emotional control of which he seems to be aware is dominant. His excitable temperament is evidenced by his quick temper and headstrong disposition. Gets angry and is afraid of nothing, "goes the limit." Is reported to need lots of excitement. Has a nomadic disposition. Is hot-tempered. Burned a mattress when angry. If he is reprimanded in any way he is giving to cursing and the use of vile language. Impudence and violence were his worst traits. He was quarrelsome and a disturbing element in a group. III-2, died at age 5 of heart trouble; was very nervous. III-3, shows definite signs of mental deficiency. Is unable to comprehend when she is cold, hungry or sick. She is subject every 3 months to attacks when she becomes sick in her stomach, dizzy and gradually unconscious, her face is drawn in nervous contortions, recovers within an hour. Is a bed-wetter. Exceedingly high tempered and at times beside herself with rage. III-4, died age 16 of tuberculosis. III-5, not in good health.

Fig. 6. I-1, had a violent temper and could make himself very obnoxious. Wife finally left him because of his ugly disposition and injustice in money matters. I-2, left her husband suddenly and he never heard from her. II-1, a very nervous man. He was violent and destructive; threatened his family and there were many quarrels. Had asthma. Was arrested because of arguments regarding labor unions. II-3, easily excited, very voluble and nervous. Shows considerable temper, whips her children over any provocation. Argues with her children far into the night. Has been in an institution for the insane. III-2, high strung and

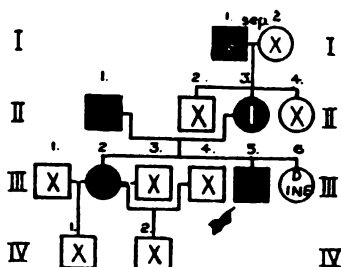


Fig. 6. Family of 142.

shows an uncontrollable temper. Is self-assertive and full of independence. Makes trouble wherever she is placed. III-5, very nervous, erratic and unstable. Has quite a temper and cannot get along with his playmates. Has hysterical lockjaw; becomes excited and jaw locks.

Fig. 7. I-1, had a large farm and was successful. Wouldn't let his children go to school when he needed them to help him. I-2, met her future husband when crossing the ocean. I-4, very jealous of his wife and she couldn't go anywhere without him. He married again, but left his wife in two weeks, obtained a divorce

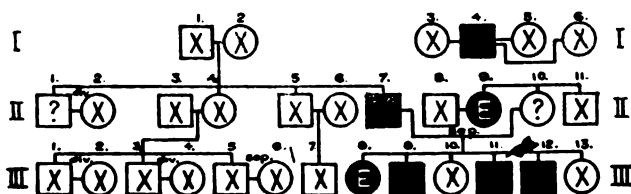


Fig. 7. Family of 176.

and married a third time. II-1, just like II-7, thought his wife was not good enough for him, so divorced her. II-3, 4, no information. II-7, ran away from home when 17. Became angry with one of his customers in his store because the man was impatient and pointed a revolver at him for which he was arrested. Ranted with his wife because she was short-changed two cents. Has a frightful temper, just grows wild at times and nearly loses his mind. Discusses his hobbies until everyone is annoyed. Deserted his family. II-9, always been a problem. When a girl, had spells in which she would shake, tremble and fall on the floor.

Seizures would last an hour. Has always been very nervous. II-10, not a strong character, unstable. Is not divorced but has men callers. Spends much of her time on the beach. Is probably immoral. II-11, died from tuberculosis. III-1, 2, divorced. III-3, 4, divorced. III-5, 6, separated. III-7, a "harum scarum" boy; been arrested for gambling. III-8, extremely nervous, had spells of irritability and sullenness. "Could look daggers through one." Has an awful temper, would have the last word or die. Was extremely nervous when 11 years old, and a little later epileptic seizures developed. Any excitement would cause them. One started when her father cursed. III-9, at first appears pleasing, but soon hows a weak make-up. Facial nervousness noted when in conversation, also fidgets about. Is beyond control of his parents. III-11, very high tempered. Can get uncontrollably angry over anything, then say he is sorry, but the same condition occurs again. Is a bed-wetter. III-12, has an uncontrollable temper. Would almost strike to kill when angry. Hits his sister as hard as he can. Yells at the family when he doesn't like anything. III-13, gave her mother lots of trouble. Was sent away from home, but she says grief will kill her if she is not permitted to return home. Is a bed-wetter.

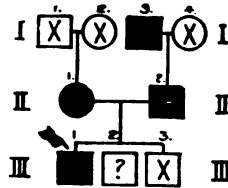


Fig. 8. Family of 125.

Fig. 8. I-2, had asthma. I-3, a crabbed old sea captain of the roaring rough type. He is grouchy and has a fierce temper. His neighbors and son despise him. I-4, stands in awe of her husband. II-1, nervous and easily irritated. Husband reports to her doctor that he can hardly stand her irritability. She has had nervous prostration. II-2, had a terrific temper that would get away with him. Punishes his children with strappings, sometimes carrying it too far. III-1, his disobedience takes the form of bellicosity and aggravation, swears at mother and defies her authority. Lacks control of temper and actions, allows himself to fly into spells of ungovernable rage. Is a potential homicide. It took the school principal and the janitor to keep him from doing bodily harm in the schoolroom. Recently took a butcher knife to mother. His general disposition is bad. III-2, has some of the temper of his brother, but has not given so much trouble with it. III-3, a little self-willed.

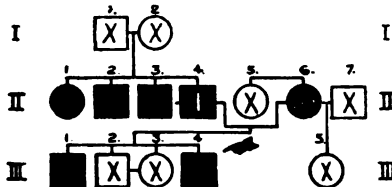


Fig. 9. Family of 117.

Fig. 9. I-1, addicted to the use of whiskey. II-1, she had a pretty bad temper like the rest of her family; had asthma. II-2, had terrific temper. II-3, a bad one, had an ugly temper; put in penitentiary for threatening to kill a man. II-4, had an ugly disposition and temper was abusive. Was in a hospital for the insane for five months. Is excitable and very talkative. II-6, very excitable and immoral. III-1, has a temper, been arrested for cruelty to animals. III-3, a prostitute. III-4, he fights, quarrels and swears at every opportunity, but is easily persuaded to behave if admonished. Stubborn with an ugly disposition and bad temper.

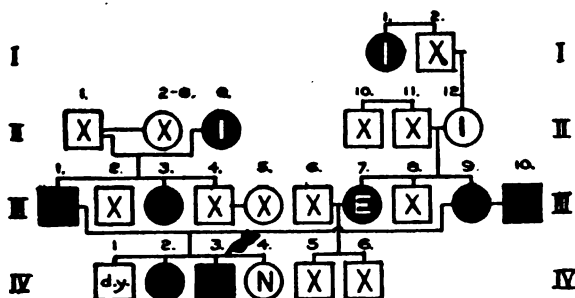


Fig. 10. Family of 186.

Fig. 10. I-1, went insane over a young man she loved, when he married. I-2, no information. II-1, drank somewhat. Had very bad headaches at times. Quite lazy. II-9, the seventh daughter. Was quite arbitrary and could never be crossed in anything. After menopause was mentally aberrated. II-10, drank. II-11, drank quite extensively. II-12 became rather queer as she grew older. Would pick up and steal little articles, often valueless, and hide them under her bed. III-1, had great imagination, always gave the impression that he and his work and everything he did was of the utmost importance. Drank heavily. Suffered from severe headaches. Liked work which took him in different places. III-3, during adolescent period, was very hysterical and nervous. III-7, a very irregular student in school due to nervousness and ill health. She couldn't sleep at night. Had epileptic attacks until her first child was born. Was quite a drinker for a woman, but no mention made of intoxication. Married and had two children. III-8, works in tire shop and is doing well. III-9, always been nervous. Had St. Vitus dance when a girl. Shows nervousness over any slight disturbance, will clasp and unclasp hands, tendency to general shakiness. Is good natured, easily led, has no initiative. Married her second husband a day before the birth of child by first husband. Was thrown in a panic at the thought of trying to rear her three small children alone, so her first endeavor was to marry again. It didn't seem to bother her any because she was marrying a blind man. He had a pension of \$100.00 a month. III-10, a veteran of the American army from the Philippines. Was broken in health and had entirely lost his eyesight when he married. Manifests great interest in children but is quite unjust and cruel in his treatment of them. Would remove his stepchildren's clothing, tie them to a chair and whip them. Is very irritable, over-bearing and unsympathetic in the home. He had a little bag of stones which he said one

child had put in his eyes and they were working out through his body. Said that they studied the anatomy of his ear with the intention of puncturing his ear-drum. He had pinched the children until they had sores on their body. An insanity complaint was filed against him but was dismissed. Is fascinated by children. Has recently taken a Chinese baby into his home. IV-1, died, age 4½ years. IV-2, wayward when small. Was given for adoption but returned to her mother as unplaceable. She is very nervous. Appeared to be in a state of nervous exhaustion. Her stepfather said she raved for seven hours. Was sent to county hospital. A notation stated probable hysteria. Has had no similar attacks. Is in second year high school. II-3, excitable, associated with nervousness. Very unstable emotionally. Breaks down with tears when his unfortunate experiences are rehearsed. Cannot stand the strain of too closely superimposed direction. Has nervous affliction which resembles St. Vitus dance, but this nervous agitation may be merely a habit spasm. IV-4, is rather shy. Does not show any of the nervousness of other members of her family.

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THE CALIFORNIA BUREAU OF JUVENILE RESEARCH

The California Bureau of Juvenile Research is a state department established by acts of the Legislatures of 1915 and 1917. The Bureau was created as a department of Whittier State School, where its central office is now located. The establishing act provides that the work shall extend to any institutions which may so request. At the present time the institutions affiliated for regular work are Whittier State School, California School for Girls and Preston School of Industry. Special investigations have been carried on in connection with several other institutions and agencies.

The law states that the Bureau shall be under the direction of a clinical psychologist, who "shall be given a sufficient staff of trained assistants that the intelligence level of each inmate may be established through standardized psychological tests, supplemented by personal and family history and data from such other lines of investigation as may seem advisable." The law also authorizes unlimited extension of the work, so that the Bureau may "carry on research into the causes and consequences of delinquency and mental deficiency, and shall inquire into social, educational and psychological

problems relating thereto, and for that purpose may make such investigations and inquires in the said institutions, when so requested, and elsewhere, as may be deemed advantageous." The Bureau is conceived as a public welfare measure, and foresees the benefit derived by the schools and institutions in which the studies are conducted, as well as the general value of these researches in the solution of state problems.

The law further provides for a part of the property of Whittier State School to be set aside "for the care, training, confinement, discipline, and instruction of defective persons, and for the study of mental defectiveness and the proper care of defective persons." Commitment or admission to this department may be obtained in the same manner as provided for in the case of Sonoma State Home.

Superintendent Nelles has arranged for the Bureau to occupy the buildings and grounds at the south end of the Whittier tract, formerly occupied by the California School for Girls, and later by the Junior Department of Whittier State School. Provision is being made for the care and supervision of two groups: (I) new boys received by regular commitment to the State School; (II) sub-normal and otherwise exceptional children. Both of these groups will be under special observation and study, and will be available for psychological or educational experimentation.

It is expected that most of the boys in Group I will be detained but a short time, being subject to transfer to the vocational division of the State School as soon as their intelligence tests are completed and their developmental and family histories have been prepared. The vocational division will thus receive a complete report on each boy as he is received. Follow-up and supplementary observations will be made after the transfer, and will continue through the period of each boy's stay at the school. Group I will be the official "receiving company" for state school commitments.

Group II will consist of three sub-groups: (a) boys received through regular state school commitments whose intelligence is found to be too low to justify their immediate transfer to the vocational division; (b) sub-normal children received by the Bureau upon special commitment as "defective persons;" (c) sub-normal and exceptional children received directly from their homes, through arrangements made with the Bureau by their parents or guardians. Group II will thus take on the nature of a special class, and the retention and disposition of each case will depend upon individual

factors. It is intended that the Bureau shall be a place for the study and observation of these children, and that in most cases arrangements can be made for placement in other institutions or homes. In state school commitments in which the intelligence level is found to be sufficiently high, or where special training results in marked improvement, transfer may be made to the vocational division or to Group I pending such transfer.

The Bureau thus takes on the nature of a clearing-house for the state, and with minor amendments to the law can serve in this capacity to a still greater extent. The opportunity to have children under tentative observation before final commitments are made facilitates the handling of children by public agencies, and should go far toward the discovery of preventive measures which may ultimately minimize the necessity for commitments of all kinds. From the present indications it seems not unreasonable to predict that juvenile delinquency and mental deficiency can be materially lessened through better knowledge and handling of these children during the early school period.

In addition to the study and observation of these two groups of children, the Bureau will maintain a complete supervisory staff, and at least two specially trained teachers. Supervisors and teachers will base their work on the findings of the investigators, and will assist in making observations in accordance with the procedure adopted by the research staff. The supervision will be in accordance with the "family group" plan, the home life of each group being in charge of a house-father and house-mother.

The laboratory of the Bureau is not limited to the facilities of the central headquarters, but will be state-wide in its scope. Members of the staff will be stationed at the several institutions so that each phase of work can be carried on nearest the sources of information. The distribution of the staff will depend upon the needs of the institutions, and the nature of the problems under investigation.

In carrying out the provisions of the law by which it was created, it will be the function of the Bureau of Juvenile Research to make scientific investigations into the causes, distribution, and consequences of juvenile delinquency and mental deficiency, and to study the problems related thereto. This work will require the following lines of activity:

1. Examination and classification of pupils in the state and private institutions to which the work extends.

2. Preparation of extensive supplementary data, including personal and family history.
 3. Operation of a system of observation and grading, which can be carried out by teachers, instructors and supervisors with whom the pupils come in contact.
 4. Preparation of information relative to fitness for leaving the School.
 5. Surveys of public and private schools, for the purpose of obtaining data relative to problems of special education.
 6. Devising of special tests, scales, and systems for the scientific classification of data, with special reference to factors associated with irregular conduct.
 7. Preparation of studies for our own and other periodicals.
 8. Publication of the Journal of Delinquency, for the purpose of disseminating scientific literature and stimulating original contributions in the field of social conduct.
 9. Publication of special studies in the form of bulletins and monographs.
 10. Collection and maintenance of a scientific library on subjects especially related to problems under investigation.
 11. The training of persons who expect to engage in special education, social service, or research work.
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CORRESPONDENCE AND DISCUSSION

PROGRESS IN WYOMING

The State of Wyoming has recently secured for its State School for Defectives a superintendent who is a trained psychologist—Dr. Carroll Thompson Jones, formerly of Vineland. Dr. Jones writes as follows:

“The administration end of the work here has naturally taken considerable of my time but we have given the Stanford tests to nearly all of our cases and have made a tentative classification on this basis. We have so many different types of cases here that there is a wealth of material for intensive clinical work.

“We are gradually changing the institution from a custodial institution for all types of helpless persons to a real training school for the feeble-minded and backward children of the state. We are also taking cases for observation and study and thereby establishing a research bureau similar to that at Columbus without

waiting for legislation. At the next meeting of the legislature we expect to have a law passed requiring that all juvenile delinquents be given a mental examination before commitment to any state institution."

WYOMING STATE SCHOOL FOR DEFECTIVES

An interesting study on the control of epileptic spasms by suggestive therapy and psycho-analysis when the degree of mentality warrants it is being carried on at the Wyoming State School for Defectives. Twelve cases of varying degrees of mentality and in varying stages of deterioration are being carefully observed for a control period without treatment of any kind. At the end of the control period intensive mental treatment, the nature of which is to be determined by the condition of the patient, will be begun. The behavior of the patients will be observed continuously and results compared with the record during the control period. Dr. Winifred Richmond, formerly psychologist at the Massachusetts State School for the Feeble-minded at Waverly, is on leave of absence from the Ohio State Bureau of Juvenile Research to assist in this piece of work.—C. T. Jones, *Superintendent*.

INSTITUTION REORGANIZATION IN KENTUCKY

Following the enactment of a new law relating to institution centralization and management, Mr. Joseph P. Byers, formerly of Philadelphia, has been made Commissioner of Public Institutions. The control of the institutions is vested in a single administrative board, the members of which serve without compensation, and whose chief duty lies in the appointment of the Commissioner, and in supporting his plans. The law became effective in March, 1920, and includes eight institutions. The purposes of the new organization are stated as follows:

"It is the declared purpose of this act to establish a broad, humane and practical policy by the State in the care and treatment of all State wards; to coordinate all of the various activities now engaged in or that may hereafter be engaged in on behalf of those who, by reason of mental or physical infirmities, neglect or misfortune, or on account of delinquency or crime, come under the care and custody or supervision of the State; to so direct the expenditure of public funds appropriated for the benefit of said State wards that waste and extravagance shall be as far as possible eliminated and a proper economy exercised with due regard alike to the needs of said State wards and the interests of the Commonwealth, and to that end it shall be the duty of the board hereby created:

"(a) To study the sources and causes of crime, delinquency, and dependency and as far as possible suggest and put into effect such remedial measures as may be of benefit to the Commonwealth in the prevention and ultimate eradication of anti-social acts and conditions.

"(b) To supervise the work and methods of all benevolent, charitable or correctional institutions, associations or societies other than those directly under its control and management that are supported in whole or in part by State funds. The board or its agent shall at all times have access to the records, premises and buildings of any such institution, association or society, and may require from them such information and reports as may be deemed necessary, and it shall be the duty of the proper officials of all such institutions, associations or societies, to furnish such information or reports whenever same may be called for, and failure to do so shall subject any such official to a penalty of five hundred dollars to be sued for

and collected by said board. Provided, however, that the authority herein granted shall not apply to purely educational institutions.

"(c) The Board, in its discretion, may at any time make investigation by the whole board, or by a committee of its members, of the management of any benevolent, charitable or correctional institution receiving State aid, and said board or committee, in making any such investigation, shall have power to send for persons and papers, and to administer oaths and affirmations; and the report of such investigation, with the testimony, shall be made to the Governor, and shall be submitted by him, with his suggestions, to the General Assembly."

The Board appoints a Commissioner of Public Institutions. The Commissioner is, in effect, the general manager of these institutions. He selects and nominates to the Board the superintendents or wardens of the institutions. These superintendents are charged with full responsibility for the proper conduct of their respective institutions. They have full control over all officers and employees. The new law prohibits any member of the Board from recommending anybody for any position in any of these institutions. It also provides that any member or employee of the Board, or any of the institution employees, who engages in political activities or contributes, in any manner, money or anything else of value, for election purposes shall be removed from office. Violation of this section is made a misdemeanor, subject to a fine of not less than \$50.00 nor more than \$1000.00.

All of the old offices and positions in connection with the institutions were abolished by the new law, and the new Board given authority to make provision for such officers and employees as in its judgment might be necessary.

The budget system was adopted. One appropriation for the support of all the institutions was made by the legislature, and this money was placed at the disposal of the Board, to be apportioned by it.

The Board, through committees, has charge of all the parole work.

Within the past month the Board has gone to New York for a warden, William H. Moyer, formerly at the Federal Prison at Atlanta, Georgia, later at Sing Sing; to Ohio for a superintendent for the Central State Hospital for the Insane, Dr. Walter A. Jillion, formerly of Massachusetts and later with the Public Health Service; to Indiana for the superintendent of the House of Reform for Boys and Girls, Major H. B. Hickman, formerly at the Indiana School at Plainfield, with experience and training as an educator, special training in psychology, and at the time of the appointment was director of research at the Jeffersonville Reformatory. In March a new superintendent was appointed for the Feeble-Minded Institute, and again they went to Indiana, to the Fort Wayne School for a superintendent. These items tend to indicate the disregard of politics by the Board, and their determination to put Kentucky's institutions on a high plane.

The Board has other duties involving inspection and license of private institutions, the establishment of a competitive system of purchases for our institutions, records—social, medical and others.

Not an unimportant section is the following, bearing upon the industrial organization of the institutions:

"The Board having in mind the welfare of the inmates of the several institutions under its control and the interests of the Commonwealth, shall encourage the employment in every proper way of said inmates in such ways as shall contribute to their physical, mental and moral improvement, and to their cost of their mainten-

ance; and to this end the board shall have authority to utilize the product of such inmate labor in the upkeep or maintenance of the respective institutions or for other departments of the state government and to transfer from one institution to another, or otherwise dispose of, as may in its judgment be best, any surplus products thus produced."

The old Board of Control and the former Board of Prison Commissioners were abolished and all of their rights, powers and duties conferred upon the new Board. Thus it is evident that the Board has ample authority in every direction. It is not confined and restricted in its actions by any restrictive measures in the new law. In framing this law it was kept in mind that the Board should have a perfectly free hand; to be left to devise ways and means under a broad, general policy, and this general policy the new law provides for.

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Anderson, Meta L. *Education of Defectives in the Public Schools.* New York: World Book Co. 1917. (School Efficiency Monographs.) pp. 104. Price 75 cents.

Characterized by Dr. Goddard in an introductory statement as being descriptive of some of the best work being done for defectives in the public schools, this book sets forth in a practical way what can and should be done for feeble-minded children who still remain problems for the local community. The plans discussed are based on the excellent work done under Miss Anderson's supervision in the schools of Newark, N. J. Special emphasis is justly placed on the necessity for recognizing defective children and teaching them to do the things which their intelligence will permit them to do successfully. Attention is also given to the problem of finding employment for these children, so that they will be able to "compete with their fellows" on terms which, if not equal, will at least be comparable. Notwithstanding the strides taken during recent years in the care of the feeble-minded, it is evident that for a long time to come there will be feeble-minded children for the public schools to train. This training can never be socially equal to segregation in institutions, but it is the only alternative if the public is to recognize the problem at all. Educating defective children to the limit of their capacities does not guarantee normal social adjustment, but it prevents social mal adjustment in enough cases to justify better work than most public schools are doing in this respect. Miss Anderson's monograph should be in the hands of every special class teacher, school principal and superintendent. It will be particularly valuable to students in training for special education, and to the many institution workers who are beginning to individualize trade and academic instruction. (J. H. W.)

Beswick, John C. *Vocational Education. Industrial Art Education.* Sacramento: California State Board of Education. 1920. Bulletin No. 23-c. pp. 18.

This interesting pamphlet calls attention to the important relation which art now bears to many if not all industries, saying that "successful competition is becoming more and more a matter of skilled designers and workmen." To help California hold and improve its places as an industrial state, its art talent must be developed and encouraged. Responsibility in this is placed on the public through its system of education and the recommendation is well made that the schools be more

completely equipped to discover and thoroughly train all persons really talented in art or designing. The encouragement of public exhibitions and organizations for the furthering of this line of work is urged. The final constructive suggestion of the writer is for community art organization correlated through a state-wide organization for the stimulation of industrial art. (K. M. C.)

Burt, Cyril. *The Development of Reasoning in School Children*. Reprinted from *The Journal of Experimental Pedagogy*. V—2, 3. June and December 1919. pp. 17. Sheffield, England.

This pamphlet includes two articles in which the author describes his scale of reasoning tests, standardized by ages for English school children. The scale includes 50 tests, arranged in age groups from 7 to 14 years, inclusive. An abbreviated scale comprising 17 selected tests gives approximately the same results according to the data. Dr. Burt concludes from his observations that reasoning ability "appears to be a function of the degree of organic complexity of which.....attention is capable.....The development of reasoning appears to consist essentially in an increase in the number, variety, originality, and compactness of the relations which his (the child's) mind can perceive and integrate into a coherent whole." Although Professor Burt states that the tests are standardized on an unselected group of English children, a hasty perusal of them leads to the impression that for American children they would be more difficult, age for age, than are the Binet tests. Comparative standards obtained in this country would be valuable. At any rate the tests are ingenious, and constitute an interesting series. (J.H.W.)

Christian, Frank L. *The Management of Penal Institutions*. Elmira, N. Y. pp. 16.

In a brief summary of the essential principles of institutional management Dr. Christian outlines the modern scientific and humanitarian method of dealing with offenders against the law as compared with the out-of-date systems of punishment, confinement and repression. The modern method is summarized in his sentence, "the future prison will be both a school and a hospital, where criminality is studied and treated." Important points in administration emphasized are the need for intelligent employees of good judgment and honesty, maintenance of a healthy "institution atmosphere" by means of good food, clothing and recreational facilities, and above all the "square deal" for all with continuous supervision of discipline and proper segregation. The importance of psychiatry and psychology as related to institutional problems is stressed; ideals of mental, moral, physical and industrial education are suggested; true discipline is defined and the need for complete understanding of the so-called "incurrigibles" is pointed out. The pamphlet is a valuable outline of a live subject which merits more complete and detailed discussion.

(K. M. C.)

Christian, Frank L. *Characteristics of the Population of the Elmira Reformatory*. 1920. Elmira, N. Y. 1920. pp. 11.

A definite change has been found in the characteristics of the inmates of Elmira Reformatory during the past decade. The data reported in this bulletin indicate that (1) because social agencies for reclamation of the young offender prevent commitment of intelligent young men formerly committed for first offense, an un-failing characteristic of most of the inmates is ignorance of common subjects

taught in school; (2) industrially, the group now ranges from the least employed to the unemployable; and (3) the human material received has appreciably deteriorated,—physically, mentally, in quality of ancestry, and in proportion of recidivists. Dr. Christian finds that the prospects for the eventual reclamation of the present group of inmates is much lower than formerly, and that the tendency appears to be for correctional institutions to function to a large extent as custodial asylums. (W. W. C.)

Hodgins, Frank Edgerton. *Report on the Care and Control of the Mentally Defective and Feeble-minded in Ontario*. Toronto: A. T. Wilgrass, 1919. pp. 236. (Printed by order of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario.)

This report is rendered to Sir John Strathearn Hendrie, Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, following an inquiry by the author, who had been appointed by the Royal Commission "to consider and enquire into the existing methods of dealing with imbecile, feeble-minded, or mentally defective persons in the Province of Ontario, and to report as to other and more efficient and satisfactory methods and as to amendments in the law or other measures which should be adopted in the matter," etc. The report is based largely on the recent publications of American investigators, pointing out some of the better methods of investigation and treatment. The author concludes with the following statement: "We may set ourselves the task of providing an adequate framework of law for dealing with feeble-mindedness, secure in the belief that its accomplishment will not only bring a new world of security and happiness within reach of the mentally defective, but will remove from society a menacing shadow, which grows every day and every hour during which we ignore its existence." (J. H. W.)

Mangold, George B. *Children's Institutions in St. Louis*. Bulletin of Central Council of Social Agencies, I-1. Mar., 1919. pp. 16.

An analysis of the administrative problems and application of modern child welfare standards to the 32 institutions caring for about 3000 children in St. Louis. The need (1) of co-operation among the various institutions, (2) of satisfactory classification and individualization, and (3) of a placing-out department, is made clearly evident by the outline prepared by Dr. Mangold. Such a survey should be of great value in the improvement of child welfare work in any city. (W. W. C.)

Massachusetts Commission on Probation. Tenth Annual Report. 1919. Herbert C. Parsons, Secretary. Boston, Mass. pp. 79.

The trend of probation service in Massachusetts is from placing the emphasis upon reclaiming from the social scrap heap to developing the work by carrying on investigations not only as to results, but as to causes, of crime and delinquency. The tendency is for probation to be used more extensively for serious offenses against person and property. Of a group of 31,478 probationary cases reported it was considered that 82.1 per cent showed satisfactory results and 17.9 per cent unsatisfactory results. This document contains several interesting charts and numerous tables indicating the nature of offenses, court action, age and sex of offenders, etc. Massachusetts ranks among the more advanced states in dealing with the various problems of social welfare and is to be congratulated for its effort to study and deal scientifically with the problems of delinquency and criminality. (W. W. C.)

Nalder, Frank Fielding. *The American State Reformatory; with Special Reference to its Educational Aspects.* Berkeley: University of California Press. March 1920. pp. 467. Price \$1.80.

This is probably the most important contribution to the study of institutions in the United States since Snedden's *American Juvenile Reform Schools*, published in 1907. The American state reformatory, although little understood by the general public, is a distinct type of institution, standing between the industrial school and the penitentiary. In this position it is faced with the difficult task of maintaining a balance between its educational and penal functions. Intended for the youth who will not, or does not, respond to the opportunities afforded by the industrial school, it provides him another chance to avoid a prison sentence. The reformatory is dedicated to the theory that delinquents aged from 16 to 30 years can be reformed through a correctional educational treatment. Unfortunately, however, the educational purposes of the institution are too often lost sight of in the necessity for maintaining orderly custody. The reformatory is too likely to be taken as a modified prison rather than a specialized public school. Conceived in the latter sense, the reformatory is a useful and necessary measure under our present social organization. The author points out that there are 16 of such institutions in the United States, dating from 1876, and that these institutions house 9000 inmates, employ nearly 1000 officers and spend approximately \$3,000,000 per year. California has no reformatory although steps have been taken in that direction. In 1913 a site was purchased, but opinion at the time favored improvement in the prisons instead. The legislature of 1919 appropriated funds for a reformatory for women, which is now being definitely planned. The University of California and the author have rendered valuable service in the preparation and publication of this study.

(J. H. W.)

National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor. *Prison Construction.* New York City. 1919. pp. 39.

Addresses given before a Prison Construction Conference by four leading architects are presented in this bulletin. On the basis of scientific and historical precedents Wingdale Prison, New York State, was constructed in three sections on different ground levels, with recalcitrants confined in the lowest level in the belief that the plan would "exert as beneficial an influence on our prisoners, as did the noble monument on the Acropolis at Athens on the humble people who constructed their mud-brick houses at its base." The idea was expressed that one of the greatest hindrances to the application and development of new ideas regarding the administration of public institutions are the old buildings; buildings constructed to last twenty-five years rather than seventy cost only about one-third as much, are cheaper in the long run, and allow for modification as ideas of administration change. The problem of prison construction and its relation to prison industries is given detailed consideration and is illustrated by a penitentiary being constructed in Ohio. The basic principles involved in the analysis of the requirements of a modern penitentiary are illustrated as applied to the Illinois Penitentiary at Joliet. The result of the conference was the establishment of a standing committee with sub-committees which should make for progress in this field. (W. W. C.)

Norsworthy, Naomi and Whitley, Mary Theodora. *The Psychology of Childhood.* New York: The Macmillan Company. 1920. pp. 375.

Written as a text for use in normal schools this book is destined to fulfill its mission most satisfactorily. It presents in an orderly and interesting form the results of educational research and experiment during the past few years discussing, in its seventeen chapters: the source and characteristics of original nature, tendencies resulting in action, unsocial instincts, social instincts, tendencies accompanied by affective states, attention, sense perception, memory, imagination, thinking, general tendencies of all the tendencies, habit and learning, play, sequent tendencies, moral and religious development, physical development, a cross section of child life at five and at eleven, exceptional children, methods used in child psychology. A good glossary and index are appended while the exercises and questions for discussion which follow each chapter will be found helpful in stimulating independent study and thinking. Adhering strictly to the scientific attitude the authors have at the same time injected much of their own vital art and enthusiasm into this work so that the student who uses it will feel in no small degree that strengthening of purpose and inspiration that came to those whose privilege it has been to work under their direct supervision. (J.M.)

Paget, Stephen. *Adolescence.* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1919. pp. 46.

A popular dissertation, prepared and given as a lecture to a group of Oxford University students. The appeal is chiefly to young men, urging clean living, and better instruction in matters of personal hygiene. (J. H. W.)

Thacher, George A. *Why Some Men Kill; or Murder Mysteries Revealed.*

Portland: Pacific Coast Rescue and Protective Society. 1919. pp. 124.

Reviewing the evidence at the time of trial or discovered after the conviction of three persons for murder, this volume presents data which should result in the release of these persons wrongfully charged with murder and in the conviction of the defective and criminal beings who committed the crimes, and should lead to the "bringing of the question of the criminal tendencies of high grade feeble-minded men before the public in order that sensible measures may be considered for limiting the procreation of feeble-minded stock." Details concerning the murders are of conclusive significance and indicative of the importance of care and supervision of the feeble-minded. (W. W. C.)

Todd, Arthur James. *The Scientific Spirit and Social Work.* New York: The Macmillan Company. 1919. pp. 212. Price \$2.00

An application of fundamental sociological principles to social problems and an illuminating discussion of scientific methods are presented in this volume. Professional standing and scientific technique are considered as essential to adequate social service work and are given specific application to various related problems. Illustrative of the substance of the book are the nine chapter headings, -Natural rights and social wrongs, The philosophy of social betterment, Recent tendencies in social reform, The scientific spirit and social work, Sentimentality and social reform, The dead center in social work, The labor turnover in social agencies, The adventurous attitude in social work, and Social progress and social work. The entire book is suggestive and inspiring, entirely readable, and written in a lucid style. For those who wish to see social work attain a professional status and for those who desire a comprehensive statement and analysis of the place of science in the study of social problems, this volume is to be highly commended.

(W. W. C.)

U. S. Bureau of Education. *Further Steps in Teaching Health*. Health Education No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1920. pp. 21.

A popular illustrated pamphlet, setting forth some practical suggestions to teachers and school officers in the promotion of health and hygienic living. If the simple rules herein given were faithfully followed in all schools, it is safe to believe that educational efficiency would be markedly improved. (J. H. W.)

U. S. Children's Bureau. *Standards of Child Welfare*. Bureau Publication No. 60. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1919. pp. 457.

A report of the Children's Bureau Conferences held in May and June, 1919. About sixty lectures and addresses are grouped in six divisions, as follows: I. The Economic and Social Basis for Child Welfare Standards; II. Child Labor; III. The Health of Children and Mothers; IV. Children in Need of Special Care; V. Standardization of Child Welfare; VI. Standards. A wide range of selection is represented among the speakers, the list including Ogburn, Breckenridge, Lovejoy, Chadsey, Chapin, Terman, Emerson, Lusk, Hart and other well-known workers. A part of one section (pp. 368-390) was devoted to the subject "The Care of Juvenile Delinquents" including discussions of the organization of children's courts, standards of probation and medico-psychological study. The publication of such reports by the Children's Bureau will aid materially in the improvement of child welfare work. (J. H. W.)

Williams, J. Harold. *A Survey of Pupils in the Schools of Bakersfield, California*. By the Research Staff at Whittier State School. Whittier, California: Whittier State School, Department of Research. Bulletin No. 9, June 1920. pp. 43. Price 5 cents.

This survey of 2472 pupils was carried out in five days, and gives an interesting report on the mental, educational, physical and character qualities of the pupils. In addition to standard tests, teachers' ratings are quite extensively used. The mental findings depend perhaps too much on teachers' ratings. The emphasis is laid upon more provision for the retarded pupils, although the problem of the bright child is not overlooked. The organization of special classes for the backward is urged. Only one group mental test was used, namely, Whipple's "Marble Statue." The most novel and refreshing part of the work is the analysis by means of teachers' ratings of the temperament and conduct of the pupils and the correlation of these traits with the intelligence ratings. Backward and mentally inferior children are much more troublesome than superior children and these more so than the average, and so forth. All of which suggests the need for and value of more objective scales for the measurement of character qualities. Finally the report shows how profitably the teachers can cooperate in a survey of this kind. (Rudolf Pintner.)

Yoakum, Clarence S. and Yerkes, Robert M. *Army Mental Tests*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1920. pp. 303.

A popular and authoritative account of the intelligence testing of one and three quarter million soldiers in the U. S. Army during the Great War. Besides reproducing the Examiner's Guide and various test forms used, the book contains chapters on Making the Tests, Methods and Results, Army Tests in the Students' Army Training Corps and Colleges, and Practical Applications. As an accurate account of the most important experiment ever undertaken in applied psychology,

the book should be of universal interest. It contains, especially, suggestions of great value for social workers, educators, employment managers, and business men generally. The recent advances of civilization have been largely along material lines. There is reason to believe that some of the important advances of the next hundred years will come from attention to the psychological factors of human progress. (L. M. T.)

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

Juvenile Delinquency. The Italian theory of delinquency maintains neglected childhood is the source and seed of habitual criminality with precocity as one of the traits of the born criminal; lays stress on the theory that crime is based on abnormality and is fostered by environment, physical and social; under social influences includes (1) demoralized homes, (2) industrial conditions in which idle children drift into misdemeanors, (3) crowded population without recreational opportunities, (4) racial factors, and (5) marriage of defectives increasing the number of defective offspring; says that the subjective causes of crime are biological and psychological including sex and degeneracy; criminality is an acquired characteristic due to a defect which is transmissible or else to environment. Among juveniles the need seems to be to change the environment and socialize the child. Modern psychological classification defines three groups: (1) the born or instinctive criminal, (2) the habitual criminal, and (3) the single offender who commits an act under stress of temptation. According to the Italians prevention is of little value, punishment being more important. Devon recognizes crime as a social problem and states that study of the beginner in crime would prevent the formation of what is known as the criminal class. Juvenile offenders are children who have used their powers in the wrong direction. The modern tendency is to recognize the need of an environment of honesty and moral decency for the neglected child. The probation system and farm schools are outgrowths of this recognition. Present needs are for directing a child's tendencies rather than repressing them. Improvement in economic conditions should result in a decrease in crime. The beginning of juvenile delinquency can only be checked by the removal of causal conditions; temptation, for example, must be removed as far as possible. For the best results children must be educated not only physically and mentally but morally and industrially as well. — *M. I. Dosblin*. *School and Society*, XI-286, June 19, 1920, pp. 725-732, and XI-287, June 26, 1920, pp. 757-760. (K. M. C.)

Criminals and College Students. By test, the median intelligence of white men of the American army including officers and that of 3328 white criminals was the same; with the negro criminal median slightly higher than the level of negroes of the army. 104 white women prisoners measure 21 points below the estimated average for the general female white population. Apparently the difference between the average individual and the average criminal is not a difference that can be expressed in terms of intelligence; one might be justified in assuming that the same characteristics which make for success in business also make for success in crime. In Miami University the more abstract subjects demand a higher level of

intelligence to earn "A" grades than do the more concrete. The average intelligence of those dropping out of college during the year is distinctly below the general average. The lower group of such people border very dangerously on the average and criminal intelligence; that fact together with their habit of non-conformity establishes increased possibilities in their case for the commission of crime. Study shows that the crimes committed by persons having lower levels of intelligence are offenses against persons while those with higher levels offend against property. Likewise in trades the more abstract professions demand higher levels of intelligence than do the more concrete skilled trades. Practical application of these conclusions would be for students' advisers to steer students of lower levels of intelligence away from abstract subjects; in prophylaxis of crime workers should stimulate dormant interests in the concrete occupations which fit individual abilities. The same principles should apply in vocational guidance. —*Carl Murchuson*. *School and Society*, XII-288. July 8, 1920. pp. 24-30. (K. M. C.)

Handling Juvenile Delinquencies. The method of handling children's offenses has greatly improved during the last two or three centuries. First, children were treated as adults and then, discovering that their degree of individual responsibility was less, they ceased to be classed as criminal and were termed delinquents. Will the next step be the elimination of the Juvenile Court and the substitution of a conference between an official not a judge and the parent and child? —*W. O. S.* *National Humane Review*, VIII-7, July 1920. pp. 130-131. (E. K. B.)

Facilities for Study of Delinquency Provided Bureau of Juvenile Research. The Bureau of Juvenile Research was established in Ohio in May, 1918, and has used the most advanced policy in reclaiming juvenile delinquents. The offenders are no longer sent directly to penal institutions, but under a legislative act creating the bureau, courts of the state are required to commit all minors needing state care to the State Board of Administration which turns them over to the new bureau for observation and study. Mental and physical tests and investigations of home environment are made to determine the cause of delinquency and enable the department to prescribe the proper treatment. The work has been handicapped due to the inability to assign cases to suitable institutions after the diagnosis has been made, because of crowded conditions in state institutions. The cases vary from the feeble-minded, psychopathic to normal. The function of the bureau is conceived to be as much of a help in making superior citizens as to prevent the development of criminals. The bureau is situated on state land adjoining the Columbus State Hospital where it has facilities for caring for the children during observation. While the work thus far has been limited in scope, enough has been done to indicate the opportunities for good which are open in this field when an adequate personnel and facilities for treatment are available. —*Ohio State Institution Journal*, II-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 20-24. (M. S. C.)

Difficulties Encountered in Dealing with Mental and Delinquent Cases. Following an active but ineffective interest by local press and public in the problem of mental defect when a "half-wit" is committed to an institution for some offense against society, admission to hospitals for insane show a temporary increase including in addition to frank insane some borderline and delinquent cases. Soon the popular furor is over, relatives begin to request that the patient be given his liberty and, when the institution properly refuses, enlist the aid of the press, politicians,

lawyers and doctors. Newspapers, by publishing reports without investigating, may create prejudice to the institution; lawyers may obtain a writ of habeas corpus and judges release patients without consulting those informed of the actual conditions in the case to the detriment of the community to which the person will return; even physicians occasionally aid in this undesirable process. Just criticism will always do good and stimulate the one subjected to the ordeal to do better and to improve conditions, but misrepresentations result in a great deal of trouble. The responsibility of the general public does not end with the commitment of a delinquent or psychopath to an institution; they should give the institution a square deal and their co-operation.—*Edward A. Foley*. *Illinois Medical Journal*, XXXVIII-4, Oct. 1920. pp. 296-300. (W. W. C.)

The Minimum of Medical Insight Required by Social Workers with Delinquents. The social worker who would understand delinquent acts must be familiar with the unequal endowments of different individuals, with their differences in intelligence, in emotional response, in sources of energy, physical vitality, of special sense organs and of bodily systems. In the study of the delinquent act the situation must be kept in mind. Truancy may be the reaction of a healthy boy to a subnormal school situation. The social worker must have insight into the manifestations of inferiority in these different spheres in childhood, adolescence, maturity, senescence; must be familiar with the whole field of mental defect and nervous instability. She must know something of the effect on conduct of insufficient food or sleep, of pain, fatigue, bad air, alcohol and other poisons; she must have some insight into the complexity of the instinctive and the emotional life and of the total personality. Emphasis should be placed on the attitude of the worker; she should cling tenaciously to accurate observations and easily intelligible formulation.—*C. Macfie Campbell*. *Mental Hygiene*, IV-3, July, 1920. pp. 513-520. (M. S. C.)

The Industrial School. There is a close relationship existing between the juvenile court and the industrial school. The first of these divisions consists in locating the youth who is in danger of becoming an undesirable member of society. Second, the treatment and education in an institution of those committed. Third, returning the youths from institution to society. In the first instance the juvenile court works alone, as does the institution in the second treatment, but in the third treatment both are concerned. In this work the court and the school are both cogs in a single machine and neither can function properly without the sincere co-operation of the other. This problem of selecting homes for the paroled youth is really the most important phase of the work. In an undesirable home the child will undoubtedly again become a ward of the state. As a general rule, a report should be obtained on the child by the institution once a month. Every boy and girl should have the fullest rights and privileges compatible with the welfare society. No barrier should be placed in the path of the young man or woman who by some mistake has been placed in an industrial school.—*John McNamara*. *Ohio State Institution Journal*, II-4, Apr. 1920. pp. 31-34. (M. S. C.)

Some Characteristics of the Criminal Insane. This is a study of the 646 patients admitted for the first time to the Matteawan State Hospital during the period from October 1, 1912, to July 1, 1915. Of these, 80.2 per cent were males and 19.8 per cent females, a far greater proportion of males than is found in the civil

state hospitals. The inmates at Matteawan are younger since the majority of crimes are committed by persons under 40 years of age. Of the 646 first admissions, 51.7 per cent were native born and 48.0 per cent foreign born. These percentages are out of proportion to the per cent of foreign born in the population of the state and show that the rate of criminal insanity among the foreign born is higher than among the native population. The patients from Italy and Russia were relatively more prominent while the negroes were nearly three times more common at Matteawan than in the general population of the State. Regarding crimes causing commitment "it is noteworthy that among the male patients 11.4 per cent were charged with disorderly conduct and 26.4 per cent with vagrancy. Among the women patients 18 per cent were charged with disorderly conduct, 16.4 per cent with public intoxication and 39.8 per cent with vagrancy and prostitution." Felonies constituted 34.1 per cent and misdemeanors 65.9 per cent of this group of crimes. Of the felonies, more were committed by Italians, while of the misdemeanors more were committed by the Irish. A study of the psychoses of this group showed "relatively few senile or cerebral arteriosclerotic cases, but high percentages of alcoholic, constitutionally inferior and mental deficiency cases." The manic-depressive psychoses are less common among criminal insane than among civil insane while dementia praecox stands about the same in each group. There appears to be some relationship between the type of psychosis and the crime causing commitment. Of those cases first committed to penal institutions, later coming to Matteawan, nearly all possessed psychoses of such a nature that proper diagnosis before the penal commitment was possible.—*William J. Nolan*. New York State Hospital Quarterly, V-3, May 1920. pp. 362-379. (E. K. B.)

The Psychological Examination of Conscientious Objectors. The data used were taken from the records of about 1000 objectors from some twenty camps. While these represent not quite half of the total number of objectors in the army, the writer feels that they are a fair sampling. In intelligence their average is above that of the white draft of the army as a whole. 46.5 per cent of objectors grade above C on the army tests, while only 27.3 per cent of the army as a whole show a grade above C. 28.6 per cent of objectors are below C, while the army as a whole shows 47.9 per cent below. The ratio of the A and B men of the army as a whole to the A and B men of the objectors is 1:2. About half of 1060 objectors were of the Mennonite faith. The Friends, Brethern, Dunkards, International Bible Students and Israelites of the House of David constitute about 25 per cent. Of 958 cases, 90 per cent object on religious grounds, 5 per cent on social, 3 per cent on political, and 2 per cent on ethical grounds. Examinations were give by psychologists in an effort to determine: (1) the objectors intelligence and mental soundness; (2) his educational and occupational history; (3) his religious experiences, knowledge of his church, creed, etc.; (4) his moral habits and social outlook. As a result three types stand out clearly. First, the *religious-literalist* type. This includes most of the Mennonites, Dunkards and many of the obscure denominations. Their objections are based on an appeal to the Bible church and creed. Second, the *religious-idealist* type. Contrary to the first group, these are men with too much rather than too little social vision and with an unwillingness to sacrifice their ideals to expediency. This is the type usually found in the disciplinary barracks. Third, the *Socialist* type—educated, intelligent, with a

patriotism that recognises no "national" limits. About 75 per cent fall into the first class, while the second and third types constitute about 25 per cent.—*Mark A. May*. *American Journal of Psychology*, XXXI-2. April, 1920. pp. 152-165. (J. M.)

The Tonus of Autonomic Segments as Causes of Abnormal Behavior. The postural tensions of the autonomic segments give rise to afferent streams of feeling, the affective cravings (emotions, sentiments) which, as our wishes, determine our thought and behavior. The autonomic system is well co-ordinated at birth and begins at once to assume control of the projicient apparatus. Here begins at the same time an important and lasting influence, the incessant and continuous conditioning pressure of the social herd upon the autonomic apparatus, molding and shaping its methods of acquiring gratification of its needs. Adaptation to the group demands self-control on the part of each individual. A vigorous compensatory striving comes in here to develop this control and gradually the socially conditioned segments become integrated into a unity which controls the individual autonomic segments. This compensatory unity becomes the ego and segmental functions are regarded as "mine," my arm, heart, etc. The personality is divided into affective cravings that constitute the ego, and those cravings that the ego must control, refine and eliminate. Conflict ensues. Various solutions of this conflict occur. The ego may repress the craving and sublimate in a creative career (artistic, religious, philosophic or scientific) or it may regress to a lower social group where it can avoid censure and still win some esteem, or the segment may win out and eventually destroy the egoistic integrations and freely pursue its primitive course. To know and master ones segmental reactive tendencies is at once the most important and most difficult thing in the world, but for the psychopath there is no alternative.—*Edward J. Kempf*. *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, LI-1. Jan. 1920. pp. 1-14. (J. M.)

The Handicap of the Dependent Child. The dependent child is an important social factor because he is unusually predisposed to influences which make for delinquency and social inefficiency. This is so because of inherited tendencies, physical and intellectual handicap, early adverse social influences and, most of all, because of the emotional disturbances incident to family break down which is termed the dependency complex. This complex is likely to develop with the development of social consciousness of dependency. If the compensatory process is overdone, he is almost sure to have feelings of grudge, resentment, jealousy, malice, persecution, etc.; if underdone, he is likely to have feelings of depression, inadequacy, self-pity and the like. The child seldom admits or even recognizes the psychopathological processes of the dependency complex and usually meets attempts to analyze it with stern resistance. However, it may be dealt with (1) by recognition of the part this emotional complex plays in the child's daily life by the persons who direct him, and (2) by sincere and wise effort to compensate the dependency feeling by intimate, sympathetic talks and by securing for the dependent child conditions of living in home and neighborhood which should make him feel as nearly as possible on a par with other children in the community.—*Alberta S. Guibord*. *Survey*, XLIV-18, Aug. 16 1920. pp. 614-617. (W. W. C.)

The Reconstruction of the Family. The key-note of present day social work is the seeking for causes of anti-social conditions and conduct. While no two cases are identical, there is a generic likeness running through large groups of defective and delinquent classes. Not only the immediate cause of the trouble must be ascertained, but the heredity found in the parents must be analyzed. To accomplish this the services of both a psychologist and psychiatrist are necessary. With out their expert knowledge and diagnosis no accurate prognosis is possible. The parole system is valuable, but it must be properly administered to fulfill its full mission and the parole officer must keep in close touch with the individual in his charge. Adult reformation is uncertain, but once the adult has proven himself worthless and every available measure for his rehabilitation has been applied in vain, it is best to remove him from his family that his contaminating influences may be eliminated. "The welfare of the child should be the first consideration. The child should never be sacrificed to pay for the crimes of the parents."—*Mrs. Theodore Workum*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-8, Aug. 1920. pp. 146-159. (E. K. B.)

The Relation of Physical Education to Moral Development. Modern educational theory recognizes the interdependence and the organic unity of mind and body, emphasizing the need of cultivating them together in order that both may attain the highest degree of excellence. Physical education, then, is an integral and fundamental factor in the educational process. Simple and temporary physical disturbances or ailments often cause marked perversion of the moral sense while chronic organic disease not infrequently leads to crime. In dealing with the offenses and wrong conduct of children parents and teachers should look for the physical cause first; to discipline children with disregard of the physical causes underlying their conduct is to commit against them a grave injustice. Criminals of the lowest type are characterized by physical defects and degeneracy, the mental deformity often due to remediable physical defects. Recent examinations of feeble-minded and backward children have revealed the facts that the causes of mental, moral and educational arrest are largely physical. Moral education should permeate the entire educational process which must keep in mind that the relation of the physical well-being of an individual to his mental and moral life is vital and basic. A true respect for the laws of health and physical righteousness provides the best basis for the highest mental and moral development.—*J. M. McCutcheon*. *School and Society*, XII-288. July 3, 1920. pp. 12-14. (K. M. C.)

Syphilis and the State Institution. A study of the incidence of syphilis in the family of a syphilitic has been and is still being made in New York by the State Board of Health through its Bureau of Venereal Diseases. "Just how many defectives, deficient and delinquents are so because of syphilitic ancestors is every day becoming a more and more engrossing question." It was found advisable to employ nurses and social workers in connection with the clinics and in this way were found members of the family in early stages of the disease. In a number of cases, families had been broken up and the children placed in orphanages. Blood tests were made of children in State, private and semi private institutions. Specimens were taken from three to four thousand children and about four per cent gave a suggestive reaction. Less than one and a half per cent gave a four plus reaction. Both the investigators and the institutions had expected a much larger percentage of

positive reactions. Conditions found in the family history led to the belief that additional statistics should be gathered. The study of the families of the children giving positive or suggestive reactions frequently revealed one or both members of the family in state hospitals. On several occasions the parents were reported to have died of tuberculosis, but the absence of any records of tests left it an open question whether the cause was tuberculosis or tertiary syphilis. Every effort is being made to secure reports of the disease, particularly in the early stages.—*Joseph S. Lawrence*. *New York State Hospital Quarterly*, V-4, Aug. 1920. pp. 443-447. (E. K. B.)

The Anti-Vice Movement in California. In 1909-10 vice-exploiting enterprises were practically unmolested in San Francisco. A report issued by the San Francisco Board of Supervisors in 1910 charges that a notorious assignation, five stories in height had been erected by a trust company. People of social prominence were known to accept profits from such establishments. In 1911 a bill was introduced to confiscate property used for purposes of lewdness, but the Assembly was not permitted to act upon it. Two years later the bill was passed, undoubtedly due to the fact that in the meantime the women had been given the right to vote and the legislative districts were re-apportioned, giving greater representation from Los Angeles County. The law now provided that a citizen could proceed against property used for purposes of immorality. San Francisco paused for twenty-four hours; nothing happened, then vice ran on as before. This was not true, however, of the eleven southern counties which had become populated with New England and middle west families with stricter standards than those in control in the northern part of the state. Rev. Paul Smith worked hard on the crusade in San Francisco, but in two years after the Abatement Act had become effective, little had been accomplished. Later with the aid of the Law Enforcement League, headway in the north was finally gained. The Morals Efficiency Association covers the eleven southern counties of California. Another phase of the activities of the League and Association has been the closing of gambling places, drug selling agencies and blind pigs.—*Franklin Hichborn*. *Social Hygiene*, VI-2, Apr. 1920. pp. 213-226. (M. S. C.)

The Struggle against Venereal Diseases and Prostitution in Switzerland. The French-Swiss societies have formed a committee for social and moral hygiene to study and fight immorality and venereal diseases. It pursues the following objectives; (a) sexual instruction of children in home and school; (b) popular instruction regarding the venereal peril; (c) preventive care and reinstatement; (d) struggle against obscenity; (e) struggle against alcoholism, and (8) social reforms. The collaboration of all of those who have the good of the country at heart is exacted. The "Pedagogical Commission" has worked for two years to discover a suitable manner to instruct the younger generation on sex questions. The first information should come in the home. This should be followed by lessons in natural science in the school before the child has reached the aged of puberty. Later a special course in human anatomy and physiology should be given in the secondary schools. Sex hygiene should be a part of general hygiene which all people ought to know. It is to be hoped by following these different steps of instruction that future generations will be more frank, self-respecting and healthy.—*Natale Wintsch-Malseff*. *Social Hygiene*, VI-2, April, 1920. pp. 255-262. (M. S. C.)

Child Protection in Denmark. Child welfare work in Denmark is divided between public and private agencies. Legislation of the past ten years provides for the payments of subsidies to children of indigent widows and widowers, unmarried women, abandoned, separated and divorced wives. In each of the 1,000 districts of Denmark there is at least one council for the protection of children. This council, whose rulings are final, has jurisdiction over a "child under eighteen years who has committed a criminal act, involving moral corruption or neglect" and may take "children under fifteen who are exposed to moral corruption." In 1917 slightly fewer than seven hundred children were removed from their parents or guardians. Every effort is made to strengthen the tie between parent and child when the latter has been placed under institutional care. Denmark realizes the necessity for systematic preventive work among neglected and delinquent children. The establishment of day nurseries, playgrounds and industrial schools is a recognized need. Correlated to this preventive work is the proposal to subsidize large families and thus in a measure remove the severe economic hardships imposed on those having large families.—*Andreas Boje*. *National Humane Review*, VIII-6, June 1920. p. 108. (E. K. B.)

INSTITUTION REPORTS

California. *The Boys Aid Society of California.* Forty-fifth Annual Report. 1919. George C. Turner, superintendent. San Francisco, California. pp. 64.

This Society cares for homeless, neglected, or abused children of California; receives, by legal commitment or otherwise, boys from the juvenile courts, provides for them until suitable homes or employment and oversight are found, and continues systematic attention to their condition and treatment. It maintains a free employment bureau, a graded school, reading rooms and library, a home for working boys and a summer camp. The entire report is interestingly written and is illustrated with pictures indicating the quality of the care provided for dependent and delinquent boys placed in charge of the Society. (W. W. C.)

Indiana. *State Prison.* Annual Report. 1919. Edward J. Fogarty, warden. Michigan City, Indiana. pp. 56.

Of 237 prisoners received during the year, 93 or 39.2 per cent were convicted of crimes against the person, 127 or 53.6 per cent against property, and 17 or 7.2 per cent against public order. One hundred and fifty or 63.3 per cent had not been convicted previously. The parole department reports 26.9 per cent parole violations. The Hospital for Insane Criminals is a department of Indiana State Prison and when a prisoner shows sufficient mental derangement he may be transferred. (W. W. C.)

Indiana. *State Prison.* Annual Report. 1918. Edward J. Fogarty, warden. Michigan City, Indiana. pp. 54.

Of interest in this report is the statement by the physician that "the greatest individual menace we have to contend with here is tuberculosis." (W. W. C.)

Iowa. *Industrial School for Girls.* Twenty-fifth Biennial Report of the Superintendent and Sixth Biennial Report of the State Agent. June 30, 1916. Lucy M. Sickels, superintendent. Mitchellville, Iowa. pp. 60.

It is stated that the main purpose of this school is to instruct the girls in home-making, including domestic science, sewing, millinery, dressmaking, mending, laundry work, gardening and care of poultry. Of the 96 girls on parole and under the care of state agent the conduct record was,—excellent, 47; good, 30; fair, 9; poor, 11, indicating that nearly 80 per cent were succeeding well or fairly well.

(W. W. C.)

Kansas. *Girls' Industrial School.* Fifteenth Biennial Report. 1918. Lillian M. Mitchner, superintendent. Beloit, Kansas. pp. 19.

That the need of individuation and scientifically ascertained data as a basis of administration are recognized is indicated by this brief report. It is stated that, of the 167 girls in the institution, 12 are custodial cases and twice as many are sub-normal; it is desired that every girl received should be given a psychological examination. A well equipped laundry is considered of especial vocational value for girls. The parole officer reports much better success with girls placed in foster-homes, carefully selected, and has been led to conclude on basis of three years' experience that a girl seldom, if ever, should be permitted to return to her own home. She estimates that about 70 per cent of the girls on parole under her charge have made satisfactory records. (W. W. C.)

New Hampshire. *Industrial School.* Biennial Report. 1918. V. E. Backus, superintendent. Manchester, New Hampshire. pp. 22.

A brief report of a school caring for 48 girls and 181 boys, giving little indication of the nature or quality of the care and treatment afforded. A special problem appears to arise in the case of older boys, committed to await trial. (W. W. C.)

New York. *State Board of Charities.* Fifty-third Annual Report. 1919. William R. Stewart, President. Albany, N. Y. pp. 192.

A well prepared report summarizing the organization, activities, and needs of the state of New York in the field of charities and correction. Sixteen state, and 233 public and 604 private institutions and agencies are subject to inspection by the Board. For the purpose of inspection and supervision the Board work is divided into four divisions: (1) children (except sick and mentally defective), (2) medical charities, (3) adult wards, and (4) mental defect and delinquency. Brief reports concerning the individual institutions and agencies, with analysis of the movement of population and a three-class rating on the basis of plant and administration efficiency are given. Of special interest is the report of the Division of Mental Defect and Delinquency of which Dr. Chester L. Carlisle is superintendent. A discussion concerning "Social Unrest and Delinquency" is especially noteworthy. (W. W. C.)

New York. *State Agricultural and Industrial School.* Seventy-first Annual Report of Board of Managers. 1919. Hobart H. Todd, superintendent. Industry, N. Y. pp. 93.

An industrial school with advanced administrative ideas is indicated by this annual report. A well-organized educational department with nineteen school teachers and superintendent, practical vocational instructor, full-time Catholic and Protestant chaplains, psychological examinations, and an after-care department of seven persons, signify that an unusual degree of care and training is provided for the average population of 765 boys in the school and a total of 2027 boys under parole supervision. (W. W. C.)

United States. *National Training School for Boys.* Annual Report. 1919. G. A. Sterling, superintendent. Washington, D. C. pp. 9.

A brief statement summarizing the work of the School and including statistical tables indicating the movement of population, causes of commitment, nationality, religion, parental conditions, and educational status. There is an enrollment of about 400, nearly one half of whom are committed from courts outside the District of Columbia. The School has recently completed a central school building and employs six teachers; "aside from schoolroom instruction boys have the advantage of vocational training, such as carpentry, painting and mixing of paints, plumbing and steamfitting, care and management of steam boilers, general blacksmithing, tailoring, shoemaking and repairs to same, sloyd and cabinet work, floriculture, gardening, care of stock and dairy, general farming, general baking and cooking." (W. W. C.)

Washington. *State Training School.* Biennial Report, 1918. Thomas P. Horn, superintendent. Chehalis, Wash. pp. 12.

This training school for delinquents labors under much the same difficulty as many others. While appreciating the need of vocational and educational programs, funds are not available for definite constructive work along these lines, owing to the fact that public ignorance compels the state to employ men and women who are not fitted for the work on account of inadequate salaries. The merit system and military training are considered as indispensable factors in the school organization. (W.W.C.)

West Virginia. *State Board of Control.* Fifth Biennial Report. Vol. 5, Parts I and II, 1919. E. B. Stephenson, president. Charleston, W. Va. pp. 763.

The board of control presents a voluminous and detailed report covering in Part I the penal, charitable and correctional institutions, and in Part II the educational institutions and other subjects under state control. Reports of the various superintendents indicate a desire to apply scientific methods and individual treatment. Science may agree with the statement (outlining the need for an institution for the feeble-minded) that the feeble-minded are "unfortunate creatures whose frames have outgrown their grey matter" but we may wonder whether it has been demonstrated that "the percentage of restoration to normal mentality would be quadrupled" by state care. (W. W. C.)

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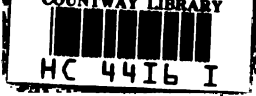
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